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TRAVELS
TO THE
SOURCE OF THE MISSOURI RIVER,
AND ACROSS THE
AMERICAN CONTINENT,
TO THE
PACIFIC OCEAN.
Performed by Order of the Government
of the
UNITED STATES,
IN THE YEARS
1804, 1805, AND 1806.

By **CAPTS. LEWIS and CLARKE.**

Published from the Official Report.
And Illustrated by a Map of the Route,
and other Maps.

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[If we are curious to know the actual state of every part of the world in the ages which preceded the introduction of the useful arts, we have only to direct our inquiries to the native tribes which scantily people the vast continent of America. Here we view human nature little raised above the other inhabitants of the woods, suffering under severe privations for want of economical arrangements and systematic industry; and indulging, without the gloss of sophistry, in those passions of revenge, rapine, and mutual bloodshed, which continue unsubdued in the courts of the most polished nations. It is a study as much calculated to convey a useful lesson to the pride of man as the occupation of a grave-digger, or the profession of a surgeon; and we commend it to all those who are puffed up with the pride of ancestry, or with the importance of office, as a means of correcting their delusions. On the other hand, the dismal condition of such people is a practical commentary on the blessings of civilization, and the contemplation of it ought to reconcile us to every state of society, in which, without unnecessarily sacrificing our personal liberties to the improper assumptions of others, we are enabled to partake in abundance the necessities of life. In all respects, as well geographical, geological, and political, as moral and social, this work

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merits the attention of the literary public. It does not consist of a collection of frivolous anecdotes about weak princes, wicked ministers, or intriguing courtiers, but it contains real portraits of genuine human nature, teaching us duly to estimate the value of every degree of civilization, and enabling us to feel all those points in which, in spite of education, we are still but savages.]

PREFACE BY THE ENGLISH EDITOR.

SINCE the annexation of Louisiana to the United States of America, in the year 1803, the government of the latter country has turned its attention on several successive occasions to obtain an accurate knowledge of the new territory, with a view to ultimate objects of colonization and commerce; and the judicious measures it has pursued, besides answering the purposes to which they were more immediately directed, have resulted in geographical discoveries of great importance.

In 1805 a party under the command of Lieut. Pike, a young officer of bold and enterprising spirit, was ordered to explore the Upper Mississippi, by ascending along the whole of its channel from its confluence with the Missouri to its source. This expedition sailed from St. Louis on the 9th of August, 1805, and returned to the same place on the 30th of April, 1806, after successfully accomplishing the design of its appointment.

In the course of the same year, Lieut. Pike was chosen to the command of another expedition destined to explore the interior districts of Louisiana, lying to the southward of the Missouri. He was instructed to ascend the Great Osage River to its source; then to proceed towards the Arkansaw; here he was to detach a party, under the command of Lieut. Wilkinson, to descend this river as far as the Mississippi; while himself, with the rest of his men, ascended to its source. After visiting its head waters he was directed to seek the source of the Red River, and to follow that stream to Natchitoches. The former part of this plan he executed agreeably to his orders;

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but being bewildered in the snowy regions at the head of the Arkansas, he advanced too far to the westward, and struck the great River del Norte, within the Spanish boundary. He was here arrested by a detachment of Spanish troops, and carried prisoner to the capital of New Mexico; whence, after a detention of a few months, he was conveyed by a circuitous route along the shores of the Gulph of Mexico towards the boundary of the province, on the road to Natchitoches. Lieut. Pike departed from St. Louis on this expedition July 15, 1806, and returned July 1, 1807.

But the most important expedition of discovery fitted out by the government of the United States was that entrusted to the command of Captains Lewis and Clarke, who were directed to explore the river Missouri from its confluence with the Mississippi to its source—to proceed thence across the mountains, by the shortest route, to the first navigable water on the western side, which they were to follow as far as the shores of the Pacific Ocean. This party entered the Missouri on the 14th of May, 1804, and took up their winter quarters on the 1st of the ensuing November, in the country of the Mandan Indians, having by computation proceeded 1609 miles. They resumed their voyage on the 7th of April, 1805, and on the 18th of August reached the extreme navigable point of the Missouri, upwards of 3000 miles from its mouth. They here procured horses, and crossed the dividing chain of mountains for a distance of more than sixty miles, and, having reached a navigable stream, descended in canoes to the mouth of the great Columbia river, which they reached on the 15th of November. They passed the winter among the Indians on the coast of the Pacific. On the 27th of March, 1806, they set out on their return, and reached St. Louis on the 23d of September following, after having travelled in all, by computation, nearly 9000 miles!

OBJECT OF THE JOURNEY.

On the acquisition of Louisiana, in the year 1803, the attention of the government of the United States was early directed towards exploring and improving the new territory. Accordingly in the summer of the same year an expedition was planned by the president for the purpose of discovering the course and sources of the Mis-

souri, and the most convenient water communication thence to the Pacific Ocean. His private secretary, Capt. Meriwether Lewis, and Capt. William Clarke, both officers of the army of the United States, were associated in the command of this enterprize. After receiving the requisite instructions, Capt. Lewis left the seat of government, and being joined by Capt. Clarke at Louisville, in Kentucky, proceeded to St. Louis, where they arrived in the month of December.

THE PARTY.

The party consisted of nine young men from Kentucky, fourteen soldiers of the United States army, who volunteered their services, two French watermen, an interpreter and hunter, and a black servant belonging to Capt. Clarke—all these, except the last, were enlisted to serve as privates during the expedition, and three sergeants were appointed from amongst them by the captains. In addition to these were engaged a corporal and six soldiers, and nine watermen to accompany the expedition as far as the Mandan nation, in order to assist in carrying the stores, or repelling an attack, which was most to be apprehended between Wood river and that tribe. The necessary stores were subdivided into seven bales, and one box, containing a small portion of each article in case of accident. They consisted of a great variety of clothing, working utensils, locks, flints, powder, ball, and articles of the greatest use. To these were added fourteen bales and one box of Indian presents, distributed in the same manner, and composed of richly-laced coats and other articles of dress, medals, flags, knives, and tomahawks for the chiefs—ornaments of different kinds, particularly beads, looking-glasses, handkerchiefs, paints, and generally such articles as were deemed best calculated for the taste of the Indians. The party was to embark on board of three boats; the first was a keel boat fifty-five feet long, drawing three feet water, carrying one large square sail and twenty-two oars, a deck of ten feet in the bow and stern formed a forecastle and cabin, while the middle was covered by lockers, which might be raised so as to form a breast-work in case of attack. This was accompanied by two perioques or open boats, one of six and the other of seven oars. Two horses were at the same time to be led along the banks of the river.

river for the purpose of bringing home game, or hunting in case of scarcity.

ST. CHARLES ON THE MISSOURI.

St. Charles is a small town on the north bank of the Missouri, about twenty-one miles from its confluence with the Mississippi. It is situated in a narrow plain, sufficiently high to protect it from the annual risings of the river in the month of June, and at the foot of a range of small hills, which have occasioned its being called *Petite Cote*, a name by which it is more known to the French than by that of St. Charles. One principal street, about a mile in length, and running parallel with the river, divides the town, which is composed of nearly one hundred small wooden houses, besides a chapel. The inhabitants, about four hundred and fifty in number, are chiefly descendants from the French of Canada; and in their manners they unite all the careless gaiety, and the amiable hospitality of the best times of France; yet, like most of their countrymen in America, they are but ill qualified for the rude life of a frontier; not that they are without talent, for they possess much natural genius and vivacity; nor that they are destitute of enterprise, for their hunting excursions are long, laborious, and hazardous; but their exertions are all desultory; their industry is without system, and without perseverance. The surrounding country, therefore, though rich, is not in general well cultivated; the inhabitants chiefly subsisting by hunting and trade with the Indians, and confine their culture to gardening, in which they excel.

THE LAST EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT.

May 25, we passed on the south side the mouth of Wood river, on the north two small creeks and several islands, and stopped for the night at the entrance of a creek on the north side, called by the French *La Charrette*, ten miles from our last encampment, and a little above a small village of the same name. It consists of seven small houses, and as many poor families, who have fixed themselves here for the convenience of trade, and form the last establishment of whites on the Missouri.

INDIAN POLITICS.

In the afternoon a boat came down from the Grand Osage river, bringing a letter from a person sent to the Osage nation on the Arkansaw river, which

mentioned that the letter announcing the cession of Louisiana was committed to the flames—that the Indians would not believe that the Americans were owners of that country, and disregarded St. Louis and its supplies.

THE OSAGE NATION.

The Osage river gives or owes its name to a nation inhabiting its banks at a considerable distance from this place. Their present name however seems to have originated from the French traders, for both among themselves and their neighbours they are called the *Wasbashes*. Their number is between twelve and thirteen hundred warriors, and consist of three tribes; the Great Osages of about five hundred warriors, living in a village on the south bank of the river—the Little Osages, of nearly half that number, residing at the distance of six miles from them—and the Arkansaw band, a colony of Osages, of six hundred warriors, who left them some years ago, under the command of a chief called the *Bigfoot*, and settled on the Vermillion river, a branch of the Arkansaw. In person the Osages are among the largest and best formed Indians, and are said to possess fine military capacities; but residing as they do in villages, and having made considerable advance in agriculture, they seem less addicted to war than their northern neighbours, to whom the use of rifles gives a great superiority. Among the peculiarities of this people there is nothing more remarkable than the tradition relative to their origin. According to universal belief the founder of the nation was a snail, passing a quiet existence along the banks of the Osage, till a high flood swept him down to the Missouri, and left him exposed on the shore. The heat of the sun at length ripened him into a man, but with the change of his nature he had not forgotten his native seats on the Osage, towards which he immediately bent his way. He was however soon overtaken by hunger and fatigue, when happily the Great Spirit appeared, and giving him a bow and arrow, showed him how to kill and cook deer, and cover himself with the skin. He then proceeded to his original residence, but as he approached the river he was met by a beaver, who inquired haughtily who he was, and by what authority he came to disturb his possession. The Osage answered that the river was his own, for

for he had once lived on its borders. As they stood disputing, the daughter of the beaver came, and, having by her entreaties reconciled her father to this young stranger, it was proposed that the Osage should marry the young beaver, and share with her family the enjoyment of the river. The Osage readily consented, and from this happy union there soon came the village and the nation of the Washbasha, or Osages, who have ever since preserved a pious reverence for their ancestors, abstaining from the chase of the beaver, because in killing that animal they killed a brother of the Osage. Of late years, however, since the trade with the whites has rendered beaver skins more valuable, the sanctity of these maternal relatives has visibly diminished, and the poor animals have nearly lost all the privileges of kindred.

THE SMALL POX.

Our camp lies about three miles north-east from the old Maha village, and is in latitude $42^{\circ} 13' 41''$. The accounts we have had of the effects of the small-pox on that nation are most distressing; it is not known in what way it was first communicated to them, though probably by some war party. They had been a military and powerful people; but, when these warriors saw their strength wasting before a malady which they could not resist, their phrenzy was extreme; they burnt their village, and many of them put to death their wives and children, to save them from so cruel an affliction, and that all might go together to some better country.

INDIAN SUPERSTITION.

This hill is called the mountain of Little People, or Little Spirits, and they believe that it is the abode of little devils, in the human form, of about eighteen inches high, and with remarkably large heads; they are armed with sharp arrows, with which they are very skilful, and are always on the watch to kill those who should have the hardihood to approach their residence. The tradition is that many have suffered from these little evil spirits, and, among others, three Maha Indians fell a sacrifice to them a few years since. This has inspired all the neighbouring nations, Sioux, Mahas, and Ottoes, with such terror, that no consideration could tempt them to visit the hill.

We saw none of these wicked little spirits, nor any place for them, except some small holes scattered over the top: we were happy enough to escape their vengeance, though we remained some time on the mound to enjoy the delightful prospect of the plain, which spreads itself out till the eye rests upon the N.W. hills at a great distance, and those of the N.E. still farther off, enlivened by large herds of buffaloe feeding at a distance. The soil of these plains is exceedingly fine; there is, however, no timber except on the Missouri; all the wood of the White-stone river not being sufficient to cover thickly one hundred acres. Here we gathered some delicious plums, grapes, and blue currants, and afterwards arrived at the mouth of the river about sun-set.

SIoux INDIANS.

August 30th. Thursday. The fog was so thick that we could not see the Indian camp on the opposite side, but it cleared off about eight o'clock. We prepared a speech, and some presents, and then sent for the chiefs and warriors, whom we received at twelve o'clock under a large oak tree, near to which the flag of the United States was flying. Capt. Lewis delivered a speech, with the usual advice and counsel for their future conduct. We then acknowledged their chiefs, by giving to the grand chief a flag, a medal, a certificate, with a string of wampum; to which we added a chief's coat; that is, a richly laced uniform of the United States artillery corps, and a cocked hat and red feather. One second chief and three inferior ones were made or recognized by medals, and a suitable present of tobacco, and articles of clothing. We then smoked the pipe of peace, and the chiefs retired to a bower, formed of bushes, by their young men, where they divided among each other the presents, and smoked and ate, and held a council on the answer which they were to make us to-morrow. The young people exercised their bows and arrows in shooting at marks for beads, which we distributed to the best marksmen; and in the evening the whole party danced until a late hour, and in the course of their amusement we threw among them some knives, tobacco, bells, tape, and binding, with which they were much pleased. Their musical instruments were the drum, and

and a sort of little bag made of buffalo hide, dressed white, with small shot or pebbles in it, and a bunch of hair tied to it. This produces a sort of rattling music, with which the party was annoyed by four musicians during the council this morning.

August 31. In the morning, after breakfast, the chiefs met, and sat down in a row, with pipes of peace, highly ornamented, and all pointed towards the seats intended for Capts. Lewis and Clarke. When they arrived and were seated, the grand chief, whose Indian name, Weucha, is in English Shake-Hand, and in French is called *Le Libérateur* (the deliverer) rose, and spoke at some length, approving what we had said, and promising to follow our advice:

"I see before me," said he, "my great father's two sons. You see me, and the rest of our chiefs and warriors. We are very poor; we have neither powder nor ball, nor knives; and our women and children at the village have no clothes. I wish that, as my brothers have given me a flag and a medal, they would give something to those poor people, or let them stop and trade with the first boat which comes up the river. I will bring chiefs of the Pawnees and Mahas together, and make peace between them; but it is better that I should do it than my great father's sons, for they will listen to me more readily. I will also take some chiefs to your country in the spring; but before that time I cannot leave home. I went formerly to the English, and they gave me a medal and some clothes; when I went to the Spanish they gave me a medal, but nothing to keep it from my skin; but now you give me medal and clothes. But still we are poor; and I wish brothers you would give us something for our squaws."

When he sat down, Mahtoree, or White Crane, rose:

"I have listened," said he, "to what our father's words were yesterday; and I am to-day glad to see how you have dressed our old chief; I am a young man, and do not wish to talk much; my fathers have made me a chief: I had much sense before, but now I think I have more than ever. What the old chief has declared I will confirm, and do whatever he and you please; but I wish that you would take pity on us, for we are very poor."

Another chief, called Pawnawneahpahbe, then said:

"I am a young man, and know but little; I cannot speak well; but I have listened to what you have told the old chief, and will do whatever you agree."

The same sentiments were then repeated by Aweawechache.

We were surprised at finding that the first of these titles means "Struck by the Pawnee," and was occasioned by some blow which the chief had received in battle from one of the Pawnee tribe. The second is in English "Half Man," which seems a singular name for a warrior, till it was explained to have its origin, probably, in the modesty of the chief; who, on being told of his exploits, would say, "I am no warrior: I am only half a man." The other chiefs spoke very little; but after they had finished one of the warriors delivered a speech, in which he declared he would support them. They promised to make peace with the Ottos and Missouris, the only nations with whom they are at war. All these harangues concluded by describing the distress of the nation; they begged us to have pity on them; to send them traders; that they wanted powder and ball; and seemed anxious that we should supply them with some of their great father's milk, the name by which they distinguish ardent spirits. We then gave some tobacco to each of the chiefs, and a certificate to two of the warriors who attended the chief. We prevailed on Mr. Durion to remain here, and accompany as many of the Sioux chiefs as he could collect down to the seat of government. We also gave him a flag, some clothes, and provisions, with directions to bring about a peace between the surrounding tribes, and to convey some of their chiefs to see the president. In the evening they left us, and encamped on the opposite bank, accompanied by the two Durions. During the evening and night we had much rain, and observed that the river rises a little. The Indians who have just left us are the Yanktons, a tribe of the great nation of Sioux. These Yanktons are about two hundred men in number, and inhabit the Jacques, Desmoines, and Sioux rivers. In person they are stout, well proportioned, and have a certain air of dignity and boldness. In their dress they differ nothing from the

the other bands of the nation whom we saw, and will describe afterwards: they are fond of decorations, and use paint, and porcupine quills, and feathers. Some of them wore a kind of necklace of white bear's claws, three inches long, and closely strung together round their necks. They have only a few fowling-pieces, being generally armed with bows and arrows, in which, however, they do not appear as expert as the more northern Indians.

THE TETON INDIANS.

Captain Lewis went on shore and remained several hours, and, observing that their disposition was friendly, we resolved to remain during the night to a dance, which they were preparing for us. Captains Lewis and Clarke, who went on shore one after the other, were met on landing by ten well-dressed young men, who took them up in a robe highly decorated, and carried them to a large council house, where they were placed on a dressed buffaloe skin by the side of the grand chief. The hall or council-room was in the shape of three quarters of a circle, covered at the top and sides with skins well dressed and sewed together. Under this shelter sat about seventy men, forming a circle round the chief, before whom were placed a Spanish flag and the one we had given them yesterday. This left a vacant circle of about six feet diameter, in which the pipe of peace was raised on two forked sticks, about six or eight inches from the ground, and under it the down of the swan was scattered: a large fire, in which they were cooking provisions, stood near, and in the centre about four hundred pounds of excellent buffaloe meat as a present for us. As soon as we were seated, an old man got up, and after approving what we had done, begged us to take pity on their unfortunate situation. To this we replied with assurances of protection. After he had ceased, the great chief rose and delivered an harangue to the same effect: then with great solemnity he took some of the most delicate parts of the dog, which was cooked for the festival, and held it to the flag by way of sacrifice: this done, he held up the pipe of peace, and first pointed it towards the heavens, then to the four quarters of the globe, and then to the earth, made a short speech, lighted the pipe, and presented it to us. We smoked, and he again harangued his people, after which the

repast was served up to us. It consisted of the dog which they had just been cooking, this being a great dish among the Sioux, and used on all festivals; to this were added, pemigon, a dish made of buffaloe meat, dried or jerked, and then pounded and mixed raw with grease and a kind of ground potatoe, dressed like the preparation of Indian corn called hominy, to which it is little inferior. Of all these luxuries, which were placed before us in platters, with horn spoons, we took the pemitigon and the potatoe, which we found good, but we could as yet partake but sparingly of the dog. We ate and smoked for an hour, when it became dark: every thing was then cleared away for the dance, a large fire being made in the centre of the house, giving at once light and warmth to the ball-room. The orchestra was composed of about ten men, who played on a sort of tambourin, formed of skin stretched across a hoop; and made a jingling noise with a long stick to which the hoofs of deer and goats were hung; the third instrument was a small skin bag with pebbles in it: these, with five or six young men for the vocal part, made up the band. The women then came forward highly decorated; some with poles in their hands, on which were hung the scalps of their enemies; others with guns, spears, or different trophies, taken in war by their husbands, brothers, or connexions. Having arranged themselves in two columns, one on each side of the fire, as soon as the music began they danced towards each other till they met in the centre, when the rattles were shaken, and they all shouted and returned back to their places. They have no step, but shuffle along the ground; nor does the music appear to be any thing more than a confusion of noises, distinguished only by hard or gentle blows upon the buffaloe skin: the song is perfectly extemporaneous. In the pauses of the dance, any man of the company comes forward and recites, in a sort of low guttural tone, some little story or incident, which is either martial or ludicrous, or, as was the case this evening, voluptuous and indecent: this is taken up by the orchestra and the dancers, who repeat it in a higher strain, and dance to it. Sometimes they alternate, the orchestra first performing, and, when it ceases, the women raise their voices, and make a music

music more agreeable, that is, less intolerable than that of the musicians. The dances of the men, which are always separate from the women, are conducted very nearly in the same way, except that the men jump up and down instead of shuffling; and in the war-dances the recitations are all of a military cast. The harmony of the entertainment had nearly been disturbed by one of the musicians, who, thinking he had not received a due share of the tobacco we had distributed during the evening, put himself into a passion, broke one of the drums, threw two of them into the fire, and left the band. They were taken out of the fire: a buffaloe robe held in one hand and beaten with the other, by several of the company, supplied the place of the lost drum or tambourin, and no notice was taken of the offensive conduct of the man. We staid till twelve o'clock at night, when we informed the chiefs that they must be fatigued with all these attempts to amuse us, and retired accompanied by four chiefs, two of whom spent the night with us on board.

THEIR DRESS AND MANNERS.

The men shave the hair off their heads, except a small tuft on the top, which they suffer to grow and wear in plaits over the shoulders; to this they seem much attached, as the loss of it is the usual sacrifice at the death of near relations. In full dress, the men of consideration wear a hawk's feather, or calumet feather worked with porcupine quills, and fastened to the top of the head, from which it falls back. The face and body are generally painted with a mixture of grease and coal. Over the shoulders is a loose robe or mantle of buffaloe skin dressed white, adorned with porcupine quills loosely fixed so as to make a jingling noise when in motion, and painted with various uncouth figures unintelligible to us, but to them emblematic of military exploits, or any other incident; the hair of the robe is worn next the skin in fair weather, but when it rains the hair is put outside, and the robe is either thrown over the arm, or wrapped round the body, all of which it may cover. Under this in the winter season they wear a kind of shirt resembling ours, and made either of skin or cloth, and covering the arms and body. Round the middle is fixed a girdle of cloth, or procured dressed elk-skin, about an inch in width, and closely tied to the

body, to this is attached a piece of cloth, or blanket, or skin, about a foot wide, which passes between the legs, and is tucked under the girdle both before and behind; from the hip to the ankle he is covered by leggings of dressed antelope skins, with seams at the sides two inches in width, and ornamented by little tufts of hair, the produce of the scalps they have made in war, which are scattered down the leg. The winter moccasins are of dressed buffaloe skin, the hair being worn inwards, and soled with thick elk-skin parchment; those for summer are of deer or elk-skin, dressed without the hair, and with soles of elk-skin. On great occasions, or whenever they are in full dress, the young men drag after them the entire skin of a pole-cat, fixed to the heel of the moccasin. Another skin of the same animal is either tucked into the girdle or carried in the hand, and serves as a pouch for their tobacco, or what the French traders call the *bois roulé*; this is the inner bark of a species of red willow, which being dried in the sun, or over the fire, is rubbed between the hands and broken into small pieces, and is used alone, or mixed with tobacco. The pipe is generally of red earth, the stem made of ash, about three or four feet long, and highly decorated with feathers, hair, and porcupine quills.

The hair of the women is suffered to grow long, and parted from the forehead across the head, at the back of which it is either collected into a kind of bag, or hangs down over the shoulders. Their moccasins are like those of the men, as are also the leggings, which do not however reach beyond the knee, where it is met by a long loose shift of skin, which reaches nearly to the ankles; this is fastened over the shoulders by a string, and has no sleeves, but a few pieces of the skin hang a short distance down the arm. Sometimes a girdle fastens this skin round the waist, and over all is thrown a robe like that worn by the men. They seem fond of dress. Their lodges are very neatly constructed, in the same form as those of the Yanktons; they consist of about one hundred cabins, made of white buffalo hide dressed, with a larger one in the centre for holding councils and dances. They are built round with poles about fifteen or twenty feet high, covered with white skins; these lodges may be taken

taken to pieces, packed off; and carried with the nation wherever they go, by dogs which bear great burdens. The women are chiefly employed in dressing buffalo skins; they seem perfectly well disposed, but are addicted to stealing any thing which they can take without being observed. This nation, although it makes so many ravages among its neighbours, is badly supplied with guns. The water which they carry with them is contained chiefly in the paunches of deer and other animals, and they make use of wooden bowls. Some had their heads shaved, which we found was a species of mourning for relations. Another usage, on these occasions, is to run arrows through the flesh both above and below the elbow.

WONDER AT A NEGRO.

The object which appeared to astonish the Indians most was Captain Clarke's servant York, a remarkable stout strong negro. They had never seen a being of that colour, and therefore flocked round him to examine the extraordinary monster. By way of amusement he told them that he had once been a wild animal, and caught and tamed by his master, and to convince them, showed them feats of strength, which, added to his looks, made him more terrible than we wished him to be.

NORTHERN LIGHTS.

Late at night we were awaked by the sergeant on guard to see the beautiful phenomenon called the northern light: along the northern sky was a large space occupied by a light of a pale but brilliant white colour, which rising from the horizon extended itself to nearly twenty degrees above it. After glittering for some time its colours would be overcast, and almost obscured, but again it would burst out with renewed beauty; the uniform colour was pale light, but its shapes were various and fantastic: at times the sky was lined with light-coloured streaks rising perpendicularly from the horizon, and gradually expanding into a body of light, in which we could trace the floating columns, sometimes advancing, sometimes retreating and shaping into infinite forms, the space in which they moved. It all faded away before the morning.

INDIAN NATIONS.

The villages near which we are established are five in number, and are the residence of three distinct nations:

the Mandans, the Ahnahaways, and the Minnetarees. The history of the Mandans, as we received it from our interpreters and from the chiefs themselves, and as it is attested by existing monuments, illustrates, more than that of any other nation, the unsteady movements and the tottering fortunes of the American nations. Within the recollection of living witnesses, the Mandans were settled forty years ago in nine villages, the ruins of which we passed about eighty miles below, and situated seven on the west and two on the east side of the Missouri. The two, finding themselves wasting away before the small-pox and the Sioux, united into one village, and moved up the river opposite to the Ricaras. The same causes reduced the remaining seven to five villages, till at length they emigrated in a body to the Ricara nation, where they formed themselves into two villages, and joined those of their countrymen who had gone before them. In their new residence they were still insecure, and at length the three villages ascended the Missouri to their present position. The two who had emigrated together still settled in the two villages on the north-west side of the Missouri, while the single village took a position on the south-east side. In this situation they were found by those who visited them in 1796, since which the two villages have united into one.

THEIR RELIGIOUS SUPERSTITION.

The whole religion of the Mandans consists in the belief of one great spirit presiding over their destinies. This being must be in the nature of a good genius, since it is associated with the healing art, and the great spirit is synonymous with great medicine, a name also applied to every thing which they do not understand. Each individual selects for himself the particular object of his devotion, which is termed his medicine, and is either some invisible being or more commonly some animal, which thenceforward becomes his protector or his intercessor with the great spirit; to propitiate whom every attention is lavished, and every personal consideration is sacrificed. "I was lately owner of seventeen horses," said a Mandan to us one day, "but I have offered them all up to my medicine, and am now poor." He had in reality taken all his wealth, his horses, into the plain, and turning them loose, committed them to the care of his medicine,

dicine, and abandoned them for ever. The horses, less religious, took care of themselves, and the pious votary travelled home on foot. Their belief in a future state is connected with this tradition of their origin: the whole nation resided in one large village underground, near a subterraneous lake; a grape-vine extended its roots down to their habitation, and gave them a view of the light: some of the most adventurous climbed up the vine, and were delighted with the sight of the earth, which they found covered with buffaloe, and rich with every kind of fruits: returning with the grapes they had gathered, their countrymen were so pleased with the taste of them that the whole nation resolved to leave their dull residence for the charms of the upper region: men, women, and children ascended by means of the vine; but when about half the nation had reached the surface of the earth, a corpulent woman who was clambering up the vine, broke it with her weight, and closed upon herself and the rest of the nation the light of the sun. Those who were left on earth made a village below where we saw the nine villages; and when the Mandans die they expect to return to the original seats of their forefathers; the good reaching the ancient village by means of the lake, which the burdens of the sins of the wicked will not enable them to cross.

THE WEATHER, LAT. 47.

Dec 8th.—The thermometer stood at twelve degrees below 0, that is at forty-two degrees below the freezing point: the wind was from the north-west. Captain Lewis, with fifteen men, went out to hunt the buffaloe, great numbers of which darkened the prairies for a considerable distance: they did not return till after dark, having killed eight buffaloe and one deer. The hunt was, however, very fatiguing, as they were obliged to make a circuit at the distance of more than seven miles: the cold too, was so excessive, that the air was filled with icy particles resembling a fog, and the snow generally six or eight inches deep, and sometimes eighteen, in consequence of which two of the party were hurt by falls, and several had their feet frostbitten.

17th.—The weather to-day was colder than any we had yet experienced, the thermometer at sun-rise being 45°

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below 0, and about eight o'clock it fell to 74° below freezing point.

18th.—The thermometer at sunrise was 32° below 0. The Indians had invited us yesterday to join their chase to-day, but the seven men whom we sent returned in consequence of the cold, which was so severe last night that we were obliged to have the sentinel relieved every half hour. The north-west traders, however, left us on their return home.

19th.—Notwithstanding the extreme cold, we observe the Indians at the village engaged out in the open air at a game which resembled billiards more than any thing we had seen, and which we are inclined to suspect may have been acquired by ancient intercourse with the French of Canada. From the first to the second chief's lodge, a distance of about fifty yards, was covered with timber, smoothed and joined so as to be as level as the floor of one of our houses, with a battery at the end to stop the rings: these rings were of clay-stone, and flat like the chequers for drafts, and the sticks were about four feet long, with two short pieces at one end in the form of a mace, so fixed that the whole will slide along the board. Two men fix themselves at one end, each provided with a stick, and one of them with a ring; they then run along the board, and about half way slide the sticks after the ring.

THE SIOUX INDIANS.

Almost the whole of that vast tract of country comprised between the Mississippi, the Red River of Lake Winnepeg, the Saskaskawan, and the Missouri, is loosely occupied by a great nation whose primitive name is Darcota, but who are called Sioux by the French, Sues by the English. Their original seats were on the Mississippi, but they have gradually spread themselves abroad, and become subdivided into numerous tribes. Of these, what may be considered as the Darcotas, are the Mindawarcanton, or Minowakanton, known to the French by the name of the Gens du Lac, or People of the Lake. Their residence is on both sides of the Mississippi, near the falls of St. Anthony, and the probable number of their warriors about three hundred. Above them, on the river St. Peter's, is the Wahpatone, a smaller band of nearly two hundred men; and still further up the

the same river below Yellow-wood river are the Wahpatootas, or Gens de Feuilles, an inferior band of not more than one hundred men; while the sources of the St. Peter's are occupied by the Sisatones, a band consisting of about two hundred warriors.

These bands rarely if ever approach the Missouri, which is occupied by their kinsmen the Yanktons and the Tetons. The Yanktons are of two tribes, those of the plains, or rather of the north, a wandering race of about five hundred men, who roam over the plains at the heads of the Jaques, the Sioux, and the Red river; and those of the south, who possess the country between the Jaques and Sioux rivers, and the Desmoines. But the bands of Sioux most known on the Missouri are the Tetons. The first who are met on ascending the Missouri, is the tribe called by the French, the Tetons of the Bois Brule, or Burntwood, who reside on both sides of the Missouri, about White and Teton rivers, and number two hundred warriors. Above them on the Missouri are the Teton Okandandas, a band of one hundred and fifty men, living below the Chayenne river, between which and the Wetarhoo river is a third band, called Teton Minnakenozzo, of nearly two hundred and fifty men; and below the Warreconne is the fourth and last tribe of Tetons of about three hundred men, and called Teton Saone. Northward of these, between the Assiniboin and the Missouri, are two bands of Assiniboins, one on Mouse river of about two hundred men, and called Assiniboin Menatopa; the other, residing on both sides of White river, called by the French Gens de Feuilles, and amounting to two hundred and fifty men. Beyond these a band of Assiniboins of four hundred and fifty men, and called the Big Devils, wander on the heads of Milk, Porcupine, and Martha's rivers; while still farther to the north are seen two bands of the same nation, one of five hundred and the other of two hundred, roving on the Saskaskawan. Those Assiniboins are recognised by a similarity of language, and by tradition as descendants or seceders from the Sioux; though often at war are still acknowledged as relations. The Sioux themselves, though scattered, meet annually on the Jaques, those on the Missouri trading with those on the Mississippi.

SAND STORMS.

April 24th.—The wind blew so high during the whole day that we were unable to move; such indeed was its violence, that although we were sheltered by high timber, the waves wetted many articles in the boats: the hunters went out and returned with four deer, two elk, and some young wolves, of the small kind. The party are very much afflicted with sore eyes, which we presume are occasioned by the vast quantities of sand which are driven from the sandbars in such clouds, as often to hide from us the view of the opposite bank. The particles of this sand are so fine and light that it floats for miles in the air, like a column of thick smoke, and is so penetrating that nothing can be kept free from it, and we are compelled to eat, drink, and breathe it very copiously. To the same cause we attribute the disorder of one of our watches, although her cases are double and tight; since, without any defect in its works that we can discover, it will not run for more than a few minutes without stopping.

THE WHITE BEAR.

29th.—We proceeded early with a moderate wind. Captain Lewis, who was on shore with one hunter, met about eight o'clock two white bears. Of the strength and ferocity of this animal the Indians had given us dreadful accounts: they never attack him but in parties of six or eight persons, and even then are often defeated with the loss of one or more of their number. Having no weapons but bows and arrows, and the bad guns with which the traders supply them, they are obliged to approach very near to the bear; and as no wound except through the head or heart is mortal, they frequently fall a sacrifice if they miss their aim. He rather attacks than avoids a man, and such is the terror which he has inspired, that the Indians who go in quest of him paint themselves, and perform all the superstitious rites customary when they make war on a neighbouring nation. Hitherto those we had seen did not appear desirous of encountering us, but although to a skilful rifleman the danger is very much diminished, yet the white bear is still a terrible animal. On approaching these two, both Captain Lewis and the hunter fired, and each wounded a bear: one of them made

made his escape; the other turned upon Captain Lewis and pursued him seventy or eighty yards, but being badly wounded, he could not run so fast as to prevent him from reloading his piece, which he again aimed at him, and a third shot from the hunter brought him to the ground. He was a male not quite full grown, and weighed about three hundred pounds. The legs are somewhat longer than those of the black bear, and the talons and tusks much larger and longer. The testicles are also placed much farther forward, and suspended in separate pouches from two to four inches asunder; while those of the black bear are situated back between the thighs, and in a single pouch like those of the dog. Its colour is a yellowish brown; the eyes small, black, and piercing. The front of the fore legs near the feet is usually black, and the fur is finer, thicker, and deeper than that of the black bear: add to which it is a more furious animal, and very remarkable for the wounds which it will bear without dying.

ANTELOPES.

The antelopes are yet lean, and the females are with young. This fleet and quick-sighted animal is generally the victim of its curiosity: when they first see the hunters, they run with great velocity; if he lies down on the ground and lifts up his arm, his hat, or his foot, the antelope returns on a light trot to look at the object, and sometimes goes and returns two or three times till it approaches within reach of the rifle: so too they sometimes leave their flock to go and look at the wolves, who crouch down, and, if the antelope be frightened at first, repeat the same manœuvre, and sometimes relieve each other till they decoy it from the party, when they seize it. But generally the wolves take them as they are crossing the rivers, for although swift of foot they are not good swimmers.

A NEW SPECIES OF GOOSE.

Among the vast quantities of game around us, we distinguish a small species of goose, differing considerably from the common Canadian goose, its neck, head, and beak being much thicker, larger, and shorter in proportion to its size, which is nearly a third smaller; the noise too resembling more that of the brant, or of a young goose that has not yet fully acquired its note; in other respects, in colour,

habits, and the number of feathers in the tail, the two species correspond. This species also associates in flocks with the large geese, but we have not seen it pair off with them. The white brant is about the size of the common brown brant, or two-thirds of the common goose, than which it is also six inches shorter from the extremity of the wings, though the beak, head, and neck are larger and stronger: the body and wings are of a beautiful pure white, except the black feathers of the first and second joints of the wings; the beak and legs are of a reddish or flesh-coloured white; the eye of a moderate size, the pupil of a deep sea green, encircled with a ring of yellowish brown; the tail consists of sixteen feathers equally long; the flesh is dark, and, as well as its note, differs but little from those of the common brant, whom in form and habits it resembles, and with whom it sometimes unites in a common flock: the white brant also associate by themselves in large flocks, but as they do not seem to be mated or paired off, it is doubtful whether they reside here during the summer for the purpose of rearing their young.

WOLVES.

The wolves are also very abundant, and are of two species. First, the small wolf or burrowing dog of the prairies, which are found in almost all the open plains. It is of an intermediate size between the fox and dog, very delicately formed, fleet and active. The ears are large, erect, and pointed; the head long and pointed, like that of the fox; the tail long and bushy; the hair and fur of a pale reddish brown colour, though much coarser than that of the fox; the eye of a deep sea-green colour, small and piercing; the talons rather longer than those of the wolf of the Atlantic States, which animal, as far as we can perceive, is not to be found on this side of the river Platte. These wolves usually associate in bands of ten or twelve, and are rarely if ever seen alone, not being able singly to attack a deer or antelope. They live and rear their young in burrows, which they fix near some pass or spot much frequented by game, and sally out in a body against any animal which they think they can overpower; but on the slightest alarm retreat to their burrows, making a noise exactly like that of a small dog.

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The second species is lower, shorter in the legs, and thicker than the Atlantic wolf. Their colour, which is not affected by the seasons, is of every variety of shade, from a grey or blackish brown to a cream-coloured white. They do not burrow, nor do they bark, but howl, and they frequent the woods and plains, and skulk along the skirts of the buffalo herds, in order to attack the weary or wounded.

BLACK BEAR.

Captain Clarke and one of the hunters met this evening the largest brown bear we have seen. As they fired he did not attempt to attack, but fled with a most tremendous roar, and such was his extraordinary tenacity of life, that although he had five balls passed through his lungs, and five other wounds, he swam more than half across the river to a sandbar, and survived twenty minutes. He weighed between five and six hundred pounds at least, and measured eight feet seven inches and a half from the nose to the extremity of the hind feet, five feet ten inches and a half round the breast, three feet eleven inches round the neck, one foot eleven inches round the middle of the fore-leg, and his talons, five on each foot, were four inches and three eighths in length. It differs from the common black bear in having its talons much longer and more blunt; its tail shorter; its hair of a reddish or bay brown, longer, finer, and more abundant; his liver, lungs, and heart, much larger even in proportion to its size, the heart particularly being equal to that of a large ox; his maw ten times larger; his testicles pendant from the belly and in separate pouches four inches apart; besides fish and flesh he feeds on roots, and every kind of wild fruit.

DRY RIVERS.

We passed three streams on the south; the first, at the distance of one mile and a half from our camp, was about twenty-five yards wide; but although it contained some water in standing pools it discharges none: this we called Littledry Creek, about eight miles beyond which is Bigdry Creek, fifty yards wide, without any water. The third is six miles further, and has the bed of a large river two hundred yards wide, yet without a drop of water. Like the other two this stream, which we called Bigdry river, continues its width undiminished as far as we can discern. The banks are low,

the channel formed of a fine brown sand, intermixed with a small proportion of little pebbles of various colours, and the country around flat and without trees. They had recently discharged their waters, and from their appearance and the nature of the country through which they pass, we concluded that they rose in the Black mountains, or in the level low plains which are probably between this place and the mountains; that the country being nearly of the same kind and of the same latitude, the rains of spring melting the snows about the same time, conspire with them to throw at once vast quantities of water down these channels, which are then left dry during the summer, autumn, and winter, when there is very little rain.

At fifteen and a quarter miles we reached the bed of a most extraordinary river which presents itself on the south: though as wide as the Missouri itself, that is about half a mile, it does not discharge a drop of water, and contains nothing but a few standing pools. On ascending it three miles we found an eminence from which we saw the direction of the channel, first south for ten or twelve miles, then turning to the east of south-east as far as we could see; it passes through a wide valley without timber, and the surrounding country consists of waving low hills interspersed with some handsome level plains; the banks are abrupt, and consist of a black or yellow clay, or of a rich sandy loam, but though they do not rise more than six or eight feet above the bed, they exhibit no appearance of being overflowed; the bed is entirely composed of a light brown sand, the particles of which, like those of the Missouri, are extremely fine. Like the dry rivers we passed before, this seemed to have discharged its waters recently, but the watermark indicated that its greatest depth had not been more than two feet: this stream, if it deserve the name, we called Bigdry river. About a mile below is a large creek on the same side, which is also perfectly dry.

BROWN BEARS.

About five in the afternoon one of our men, who had been afflicted with biles, and suffered to walk on shore, came running to the boats with loud cries and every symptom of terror and distress; for some time after we had taken him on board, he was so much out of breath as to be unable to de-
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scribe the cause of his anxiety, but he at length told us that about a mile and a half below he had shot a brown bear, which immediately turned, and was in close pursuit of him; but the bear being badly wounded could not overtake him. Capt. Lewis, with seven men, immediately went in search of him, and having found his track, followed him by the blood for a mile, and found him concealed in some thick brushwood, and shot him with two balls through the skull. Though somewhat smaller than that killed a few days ago, he was a monstrous animal, and a most terrible enemy; our man had shot him through the centre of the lungs, yet he had pursued him furiously for half a mile, then returned more than twice that distance, and with his talons had prepared himself a bed in the earth, two feet deep and five feet long, and was perfectly alive when they found him, which was at least two hours after he received the wound. The wonderful power of life which these animals possess renders them dreadful; their very track in the mud or sand, which we have sometimes found eleven inches long, and seven and a quarter wide, exclusive of the talons, is alarming; and we had rather encounter two Indians than meet a single brown bear. There is no chance of killing them by a single shot, unless the ball goes through the brains, and this is very difficult on account of two large muscles which cover the side of the forehead, and the sharp projection of the centre of the frontal bone, which is also thick.

Towards evening the men in the hindmost canoes discovered a large brown bear lying in the open grounds, about three hundred paces from the river; six of them, all good hunters, immediately went to attack him, and, concealing themselves by a small eminence, came unperceived within forty paces of him; four of the hunters now fired, and each lodged a ball in his body, two of them directly through the lungs; the furious animal sprang up and ran open-mouthed upon them; as he came near, the two hunters who had reserved their fire gave him two wounds, one of which, breaking his shoulder, retarded his motion for a moment; but before they could reload he was so near that they were obliged to run to the river, and before they reached it he had almost over-

taken them; two jumped into the canoe; the other four separated, and concealing themselves in the willows, fired as fast as each could reload; they struck him several times, but instead of weakening the monster each shot seemed only to direct him towards the hunter, till at last he pursued two of them so closely, that they threw aside their guns and pouches, and jumped down a perpendicular bank of twenty feet into the river; the bear sprang after them, and was within a few feet of the hindmost, when one of the hunters on shore shot him in the head, and finally killed him; they dragged him to the shore, and found that eight balls had passed through him in different directions.

THE GREAT FALLS.

From the draught and survey of Capt. Clarke we had now a clear and connected view of the falls, cascades, and rapids, of the Missouri.

This river is three hundred yards wide at the point where it receives the waters of Medicine river, which is one hundred and thirty-seven yards in width. The united current continues three hundred and twenty-eight poles to a small rapid on the north side, from which it gradually widens to one thousand four hundred yards, and at the distance of five hundred and forty-eight poles reaches the head of the rapids, narrowing as it approaches them. Here the hills on the north, which had withdrawn from the bank, closely border the river, which, for the space of three hundred and twenty poles, makes its way over the rocks with a descent of thirty feet: in this course the current is contracted to five hundred and eighty yards, and, after throwing itself over a small pitch of five feet, forms a beautiful cascade of twenty-six feet five inches; this does not however fall immediately perpendicular, being stopped by a part of the rock, which projects at about one-third of the distance. After descending this fall, and passing the cottonwood island, on which the eagle has fixed its nest, the river goes on for five hundred and thirty-two poles over rapids and little falls, the estimated descent of which is thirteen feet six inches, till it is joined by a large fountain boiling up underneath the rocks near the edge of the river, into which it falls with a cascade of eight feet. It is of the most perfect clearness, and rather of a bluish cast; and

and even after falling into the Missouri it preserves its colour for half a mile. From this fountain the river descends with increased rapidity for the distance of two hundred and fourteen poles, during which the estimated descent is five feet: from this, for a distance of one hundred and thirty five poles, the river descends fourteen feet seven inches, including a perpendicular fall of six feet seven inches. The river has now become pressed into a space of four hundred and seventy-three yards, and here forms a grand cataract by falling over a plain rock the whole distance across the river to the depth of forty-seven feet eight inches: after recovering itself the Missouri then proceeds with an estimated descent of three feet, till at the distance of one hundred and two poles it again is precipitated down the Crooked falls of nineteen feet perpendicular; below this, at the mouth of a deep ravine, is a fall of five feet, after which, for the distance of nine hundred and seventy poles, the descent is much more gradual, not being more than ten feet, and then succeeds a handsome level plain for the space of one hundred and seventy-eight poles, with a computed descent of three feet, making a bend towards the north. Thence it descends, during four hundred and eighty poles, about eighteen feet and a half, when it makes a perpendicular fall of two feet, which is ninety poles beyond the great cataract, in approaching which it descends thirteen feet within two hundred yards, and gathering strength from its confined channel, which is only two hundred and eighty yards wide, rushes over the fall to the depth of eighty-seven feet and three quarters of an inch. After raging among the rocks and losing itself in foam, it is compressed immediately into a bed of ninety-three yards in width; it continues for three hundred and forty poles to the entrance of a run or deep ravine, where there is a fall of three feet, which, joined to the decline of the river during that course, makes the descent six feet. As it goes on, the descent within the next two hundred and forty poles is only four feet; from this passing a run or deep ravine the descent for four hundred poles is thirteen feet; within two hundred and forty poles a second descent of eighteen feet; thence one hundred

and sixty poles a descent of six feet; after which to the mouth of Portage creek, a distance of two hundred and eighty poles, the descent is ten feet. From this survey and estimate it results that the river experiences a descent of three hundred and fifty-two feet in the course of two and three-quarter miles, from the commencement of the rapids to the mouth of Portage creek, exclusive of almost impassable rapids, which extend for a mile below its entrance.

SOURCES OF THE MISSOURI AND COLUMBIA.

The road was still plain, and, as it led them directly on towards the mountain, the stream gradually became smaller, till after going two miles it had so greatly diminished in width that one of the men in a fit of enthusiasm, with one foot on each side of the river, thanked God that he had lived to bestride the Missouri. As they went along their hopes of soon seeing the waters of the Columbia, arose almost to painful anxiety, when, after four miles from the last abrupt turn of the river, they reached a small gap formed by the high mountains which recede on each side, leaving room for the Indian road. From the foot of one of the lowest of these mountains, which rises with a gentle ascent of about half a mile, issues the remotest water of the Missouri. They had now reached the hidden sources of that river, which had never yet been seen by civilized man: and as they quenched their thirst at the chaste and icy fountain—as they sat down by the brink of that little rivulet, which yielded its distant and modest tribute to the parent ocean, they felt themselves rewarded for all their labours and all their difficulties. They left reluctantly this interesting spot, and pursuing the Indian road through the interval of the hills, arrived at the top of a ridge, from which they saw high mountains, partially covered with snow, still to the west of them. The ridge on which they stood formed the dividing line between the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. They followed a descent much steeper than that on the eastern side, and at the distance of three quarters of a mile reached a handsome bold creek of cold clear water running to the westward. They stopped to taste for the first time the waters of the Columbia; and after

After a few minutes followed the road across steep hills and low hollows, till they reached a spring on the side of a mountain; here they found a sufficient quantity of dry willow brush for fuel, and therefore halted for the night.

RAVENOUS INDIAN APPETITES.

After the hunters had been gone about an hour, Capt. Lewis again mounted with one of the Indians behind him, and the whole party set out; but just as they passed through the narrows they saw one of the spies coming back at full speed across the plain; the chief stopped and seemed uneasy, the whole band were moved with fresh suspicions, and Capt. Lewis himself was much disconcerted, lest by some unfortunate accident some of their enemies might have perhaps straggled that way. The young Indian had scarcely breath to say a few words as he came up, when the whole troop dashed forward as fast as their horses could carry them; and Captain Lewis, astonished at this movement, was borne along for nearly a mile before he learnt with great satisfaction that it was all caused by the spy having come to announce that one of the white men had killed a deer. Relieved from his anxiety he now found the jolting very uncomfortable; for the Indian behind him, being afraid of not getting his share of the feast, had lashed the horse at every step since they set off; he therefore reined him in and ordered the Indian to stop beating him. The fellow had no idea of losing time in disputing the point, and jumping off the horse ran for a mile at full speed, Capt. Lewis slackened his pace, and followed at a sufficient distance to observe them. When they reached the place where Drewyer had thrown out the intestines, they all dismounted in confusion, and ran tumbling over each other like famished dogs: each tore away whatever part he could, and instantly began to eat it: some had the liver, some the kidneys, in short no part on which we are accustomed to look with disgust escaped them: one of them, who had seized about nine feet of the entrails, was chewing it at one end, while with his hand he was diligently clearing his way by discharging the contents at the other. It was indeed impossible to see these wretches ravenously feeding on the filth of animals, and the blood streaming from their mouths, without

deploring how nearly the condition of savages approaches that of the brute creation: yet though suffering with hunger they did not attempt, as they might have done, to take by force the whole deer, but contented themselves with what had been thrown away by the hunter. Capt. Lewis now had the deer skinned, and after reserving a quarter of it gave the rest of the animal to the chief to be divided among the Indians, who immediately devoured nearly the whole of it without cooking. They now went forward towards the creek, where there was some brushwood to make a fire, and found Drewyer, who had killed a second deer: the same struggle for the entrails was renewed here, and on giving nearly the whole deer to the Indians they devoured it even to the soft part of the hoofs. A fire being made, Capt. Lewis had his breakfast, during which Drewyer brought in a third deer: this too, after reserving one quarter, was given to the Indians, who now seemed completely satisfied, and in a good humour.

THE MISSOURI.

We have now reached the extreme navigable point of the Missouri, which our observation places in latitude $43^{\circ} 30' 43''$ north. It is difficult to comprise in any general description the characteristics of a river so extensive, and fed by so many streams, which have their sources in a great variety of soils and climates. But the Missouri is still sufficiently powerful to give to all its waters something of a common character, which is of course decided by the nature of the country through which it passes. The bed of the river is chiefly composed of a blue mud, from which the water itself derives a deep tinge. From its junction here to the place near which it leaves the mountains, its course is embarrassed by rapids and rocks which the hills on each side have thrown into its channel. From that place, its current, with the exception of the falls, is not difficult of navigation, nor is there much variation in its appearance till the mouth of the Platte. That powerful river throws out vast quantities of coarse sand, which contribute to give a new face to the Missouri, which is now much more impeded by islands. The sand, as it is drifted down, adheres in time to some of the projecting points from the shore, and forms a barrier

rier to the mud, which at length fills to the same height with the sandbar itself: as soon as it has acquired a consistency, the willow grows there the first year, and by its roots assists the solidity of the whole: as the mud and sand accumulate the cottonwood-tree next appears; till the gradual excretion of soils raises the surface of the point above the highest freshets. Thus stopped in its course the water seeks a passage elsewhere, and, as the soil on each side is light and yielding, what was only a peninsula becomes gradually an island, and the river indemnifies itself for the usurpation by encroaching on the adjacent shore. In this way the Missouri, like the Mississippi, is constantly cutting off the projections of the shore, and leaving its ancient channel, which is then marked by the mud it has deposited, and a few stagnant ponds.

The general appearance of the country as it presents itself on ascending may be thus described. From its mouth to the two Charletons, a ridge of highlands borders the river at a small distance, leaving between them fine rich meadows. From the mouth of the two Charletons the hills recede from the river, giving greater extent to the low grounds, but they again approach the river for a short distance near Grand river, and again at Snake creek. From that point they retire, nor do they come again to the neighbourhood of the river till above the Sauk prairie, where they are comparatively low and small. Thence they diverge and reappear at the Charaton Searty, after which they are scarcely, if at all, discernible, till they advance to the Missouri, nearly opposite to the Kansas.

The same ridge of hills extends on the south side, in almost one unbroken chain, from the mouth of the Missouri to the Kansas, though decreasing in height beyond the Osage. As they are nearer the river than the hills on the opposite sides, the intermediate low grounds are of course narrower, but the general character of the soil is common to both sides.

In the meadows and along the shore the tree most common is the cottonwood, which with the willow forms almost the exclusive growth of the Missouri. The hills, or rather high grounds, for they do not rise higher than from one hundred and fifty to two hundred feet, are composed of a good

rich black soil, which is perfectly susceptible of cultivation, though it becomes richer on the hills beyond the Platte, and are in general thinly covered with timber. Beyond these hills the country extends into high open plains, which are on both sides sufficiently fertile, but the south has the advantage of better streams of water, and may therefore be considered as preferable for settlements. The lands, however, become much better, and the timber more abundant between the Osage and the Kansas. From the Kansas to the Nadawa the hills continue at nearly an equal distance, varying from four to eight miles from each other, except that from the little Platte to nearly opposite the ancient Kansas village, the hills are more remote, and the meadows of course wider on the north side of the river. From the Nadawa the northern hills disappear, except at occasional intervals, where they are seen at a distance, till they return about twenty-seven miles above the Platte, near the ancient village of the Ayoways. On the south the hills continue close to the river from the ancient village of the Kansas up to Council bluff, fifty miles beyond the Platte; forming high prairie lands. On both sides the lands are good, and perhaps this distance from the Osage to the Platte may be recommended as among the best districts on the Missouri for the purposes of settlers.

From the Ayoway village the northern hills again retire from the river, to which they do not return till three hundred and twenty miles above, at Floyd's river. The hills on the south also leave the river at Council bluffs, and re-appear at the Mahar village, two hundred miles up the Missouri. The country thus abandoned by the hills is more open, and the timber in smaller quantities than below the Platte, so that although the plain is rich and covered with high grass, the want of wood renders it less calculated for cultivation than below that river.

The northern hills, after remaining near the Missouri for a few miles at Floyd's river, recede from it at the Sioux river, the course of which they follow, and though they again visit the Missouri at Whitestone river, where they are low, yet they do not return to it till beyond James river. The highlands on the south, after continuing near the river at the Mahar

har villages, again disappear, and do not approach it till the Cobalt bluffs, about forty-four miles from the villages, and then from those bluffs to the Yellowstone river, a distance of about one thousand miles, they follow the banks of the river with scarcely any deviation.

From the James river the lower grounds are confined within a narrow space by the hills on both sides, which now continue near each other up to the mountains. The space between them however varies from one to three miles as high as the Muscleshell river, from which the hills approach so high as to leave scarcely any low grounds on the river, and near the Falls reach the water's edge. Beyond the Falls the hills are scattered, and low to the first range of mountains.

The soil during the whole length of the Missouri below the Platte is, generally speaking, very fine, and although the timber is scarce, there is still sufficient for the purposes of settlers. But beyond that river, although the soil is still rich, yet the almost total absence of timber, and particularly the want of good water, of which there is but a small quantity in the creeks, and even that brackish, oppose powerful obstacles to its settlement. The difficulty becomes still greater between the Muscleshell river and the Falls, where, besides the greater scarcity of timber, the country itself is less fertile.

The elevation of these highlands varies as they pass through this extensive tract of country. From Wood river they are about one hundred and fifty feet above the water, and continue at that height till they rise near the Osage, from which place to the ancient fortification they again diminish in size. Thence they continue higher till the Mandan village, after which they are rather lower till the neighbourhood of Muscleshell river, where they are met by the Northern hills, which have advanced at a more uniform height, varying from one hundred and fifty to two hundred or three hundred feet. From this place to the mountains the height of both is nearly the same, from three hundred to five hundred feet, and the low grounds so narrow that the traveller seems passing through a range of high country. From Maria's river to the Falls the hills descend to the

height of about two or three hundred feet.

EASY PARTURITION.

One of the women who had been leading two of our packhorses halted at a rivulet about a mile behind, and sent on the two horses by a female friend; on enquiring of Cameahwait the cause of her detention, he answered, with great appearance of unconcern, that she had just stopped to lie in, but would soon overtake us. In fact we were astonished to see her in about an hour's time come on with her new-born infant and pass us on her way to the camp, apparently in perfect health.

This wonderful facility with which the Indian women bring forth their children seems rather some benevolent gift of nature, in exempting them from pains which their savage state would render doubly grievous, than any result of habit. If, as has been imagined, a pure dry air, or a cold and elevated country, are obstacles to easy delivery, every difficult incident to that operation might be expected in this part of the continent; nor can another reason, the habit of carrying heavy burthens during pregnancy, be at all applicable to the Shoshonee women, who rarely carry any burdens, since their nation possesses an abundance of horses. We have indeed been several times informed by those conversant with Indian manners, and who asserted their knowledge of the fact, that Indian women pregnant by white men experience more difficulty in childbirth than when the father is an Indian. If this account be true it may contribute to strengthen the belief, that the easy delivery of the Indian women is wholly constitutional.

THE SHOSHONEES WOMEN.

A plurality of wives is very common; but these are not generally sisters, as among the Minnetarees and Mandans, but are purchased of different fathers. The infant daughters are often betrothed by their father to men who are grown, either for themselves or for their sons, for whom they are desirous of providing wives. The compensation to the father is usually made in horses or mules; and the girl remains with her parents till the age of puberty, which is thirteen or fourteen, when she is surrendered to her husband. At the same time the father often makes a present to the husband

band equal to what he had formerly received as the price of his daughter, though this return is optional with her parent. Sacajawea had been contracted in this way before she was taken prisoner, and when we brought her back her betrothed was still living. Although he was double the age of Sacajawea, and had two other wives, he claimed her; but, on finding that she had a child by her new husband, Chaboneau, he relinquished his pretensions, and said he did not want her.

In their domestic economy the man is equally sovereign. The man is the sole proprietor of his wives and daughters, and can barter them away, or dispose of them in any manner he may think proper. The children are seldom corrected; the boys, particularly, soon become their own masters; they are never whipped, for they say that it breaks their spirit, and that after being flogged they never recover their independence of mind, even when they grow to manhood.

The mass of the females are condemned, as among all savage nations, to the lowest and most laborious drudgery. When the tribe is stationary they collect the roots, and cook; they build the huts, dress the skins, and make clothing; collect the wood, and assist in taking care of the horses on the route; they load the horses and have the charge of all the baggage.

THE SHOSHONEES MEN.

The only business of the man is to fight; he therefore takes on himself the care of his horse, the companion of his warfare; but he will descend to no other labour than to hunt and to fish. He would consider himself degraded by being compelled to walk any distance; and were he so poor as to possess only two horses, he would ride the best of them, and leave the other for his wives and children and their baggage; and if he has too many wives or too much baggage for the horse, the wives have no alternative but to follow him on foot; they are not however often reduced to those extremities, for their stock of horses is very ample.

As war is the chief occupation, bravery is the first virtue among the Shoshonees. None can hope to be distinguished without having given proofs of it, nor can there be any preferment, or influence among the nation, without some warlike achievement. Those important events which give reputa-

tion to a warrior, and which entitle him to a new name, are killing a white bear, stealing individually the horses of the enemy, leading out a party who happen to be successful either in plundering horses or destroying the enemy, and lastly scalping a warrior. These acts seem of nearly equal dignity, but the last, that of taking an enemy's scalp, is an honour quite independent of the act of vanquishing him. To kill your adversary is of no importance unless the scalp is brought from the field of battle, and were a warrior to slay any number of his enemies in action, and others were to obtain the scalps, or first touch the dead, they would have all the honours, since they have borne off the trophy.

THEIR PERSONS.

The Shoshonees are of a diminutive stature, with thick flat feet and ankles, crooked legs, and are, generally speaking, worse formed than any nation of Indians we have seen. The hair of both sexes is suffered to fall loosely over the face and down the shoulders; some men, however, divide it by means of thongs of dressed leather or otter skin into two equal queues, which hang over the ears and are drawn in front of the body; but, at the present moment, when the nation is afflicted by the loss of so many relations killed in war, most of them have the hair cut quite short in the neck, and Cameahwait has the hair cut short all over his head, this being the customary mourning for a deceased kindred.

THE CHOPUNNISH INDIANS.

The Chopunnish or Pierced-nose nation, who reside on the Kooskooskee and Lewis's rivers, are in person stout, portly, well-looking men: the women are small, with good features, and generally handsome, though the complexion of both sexes is darker than that of the Tushepaws. In dress they resemble that nation, being fond of displaying their ornaments. The buffaloe or elk-skin robe decorated with beads, sea-shells, chiefly mother-of-pearl, attached to an otter-skin collar, and hung in the hair, which falls in front in two queues; feathers, paints of different kinds, principally white, green, and light blue, all of which they find in their own country: these are the chief ornaments they use. In the winter they wear a short shirt of dressed skins, long painted leggings and moccasins, and a plait of twisted grass round the neck. The

The dress of the women is more simple, consisting of a long shirt of argalia or ibex skin, reaching down to the ankles without a girdle: to this are tied little pieces of brass and shells and other small articles; but the head is not at all ornamented. The dress of the female is indeed more modest, and more studiously so than any we have observed, though the other sex is careless of the indelicacy of exposure.

The Chopunnish have very few amusements, for their life is painful and laborious; and all their exertions are necessary to earn even their precarious subsistence. During the summer and autumn they are busily occupied in fishing for salmon, and collecting their winter store of roots. In the winter they hunt the deer on snow-shoes over the plains, and towards spring cross the mountains to the Missouri for the purpose of trafficking for buffalo robes. The inconveniences of that comfortless life are increased by frequent encounters with their enemies from the west, who drive them over the mountains with the loss of their horses, and sometimes the lives of many of the nation.

They are generally healthy—the only disorders which we have had occasion to remark being of a scrophulous kind, and for these, as well as for the amusement of those who are in good health, hot and cold bathing is very commonly used.

THE SOKULKS.

The nation among which we now are call themselves Sokulks; and with them are united a few of another nation, who reside on a western branch, emptying itself into the Columbia, a few miles above the mouth of the latter river, and whose name is Chimnapum. The languages of these nations, of each of which we obtained a vocabulary, differ but little from each other, or from that of the Chopunnish, who inhabit the Kooskooskee and Lewis's river. In their dress and general appearance also they resemble much those nations; the men wearing a robe of deer or antelope skin, under which a few of them have a short leathern shirt. The most striking difference between them is among the females, the Sokulk women being more inclined to corpulency than any we have yet seen; their stature is low, their faces broad, and their heads flattened in such a manner that the forehead is in a straight line from the

nose to the crown of the head; their eyes are of a dirty sable, their hair too is coarse and black, and braided as above without ornament of any kind; instead of wearing, as do the Chopunnish, long leathern shirts, highly decorated with beads and shells, the Sokulk females have no other covering but a truss or piece of leather tied round the hips, and then drawn tight between the legs. The ornaments usually worn by both sexes are large blue or white beads, either pendant from their ears, or round their necks, wrists, and arms; they have likewise bracelets of brass, copper, and horn, and some trinkets of shells, fish bones, and curious feathers. The houses of the Sokulks are made of large mats of rushes, and are generally of a square or oblong form, varying in length from fifteen to sixty feet, and supported in the inside by poles or forks about six feet high; the top is covered with mats, leaving a space of twelve or fifteen inches, the whole length of the house, for the purpose of admitting the light and suffering the smoke to pass through: the roof is nearly flat, which seems to indicate that rains are not common in this open country, and the house is not divided into apartments, the fire being in the middle of the large room, and immediately under the hole in the roof: the rooms are ornamented with their nets, gigs, and other fishing tackle, as well as the bow for each inhabitant, and a large quiver of arrows, which are headed with flint and stones.

The Sokulks seem to be of a mild and peaceable disposition, and live in a state of comparative happiness. The men, like those on the Kimooenim, are said to content themselves with a single wife, with whom we observe the husband shares the labours of procuring subsistence much more than is usual among savages. What may be considered as an unequivocal proof of their good disposition is the great respect which was shown to old age. Among other marks of it we observed in one of the houses an old woman perfectly blind, and who we were informed had lived more than a hundred winters. In this state of decrepitude she occupied the best position in the house, seemed to be treated with great kindness, and whatever she said was listened to with much attention. They are by no means intrusive, and as their fisheries supply them with a competent,

tent, if not an abundant subsistence, although they receive thankfully whatever we choose to give, they do not importune us by begging. The fish is, indeed, their chief food, except the roots, and the casual supplies of the antelope, which, to those who have only bows and arrows, must be very scanty. This diet may be the direct or the remote cause of the chief disorder which prevails among them, as well as among the Flatheads, on the Kooskooskee and Lewis's river. With all these Indians a bad soreness of the eyes is a very common disorder, which is suffered to ripen by neglect, till many are deprived of one of their eyes, and some have totally lost the use of both. This dreadful calamity may reasonably, we think, be imputed to the constant reflection of the sun on the waters where they are continually fishing in the spring, summer and fall, and during the rest of the year on the snows of a country which affords no object to relieve the sight. Among the Sokulks too, and indeed among all the tribes whose chief subsistence is fish, we have observed that bad teeth are very general; some have the teeth, particularly those of the upper jaw, worn down to the gums, and many of both sexes, and even of middle age, have lost them almost entirely. This decay of the teeth is a circumstance very unusual among the Indians, either of the mountains or the plains, and seems peculiar to the inhabitants of the Columbia. We cannot avoid regarding, as one principal cause of it, the manner in which they eat their food. The roots are swallowed as they are dug from the ground, frequently nearly covered with a gritty sand; so little idea have they that this is offensive, that all the roots they offer us for sale are in the same condition. A second and a principal cause may be their great use of the dried salmon, the bad effects of which are most probably increased by their mode of cooking it, which is simply to warm, and then swallow the rind, scales, and flesh, without any preparation. The Sokulks possess but few horses, the greater part of their labours being performed in canoes. Their amusements are similar to those of the Missouri Indians.

BLUE BEADS.

Towards evening seven Clatsops came over in a canoe with two skins of the sea-otter. To this article they at-

tach an extravagant value, and their demands for it were so high that we were fearful of reducing our small stock of merchandise, on which we must depend for subsistence as we return, to venture on purchasing. To ascertain however their ideas as to the value of different objects, we offered for one of the skins a watch, a handkerchief, an American dollar, and a bunch of red beads; but neither the curious mechanism of the watch, nor even the red beads, could tempt him; he refused the offer, but asked for tiacomoshack, or chief beads, the most common sort of coarse blue coloured beads, the article beyond all price in their estimation.

FLEAS.

The fleas which annoyed us near the portage of the Great Falls, have taken such possession of our clothes, that we are obliged to have a regular search every day through our blankets as a necessary preliminary to sleeping at night. These animals indeed are so numerous that they are almost a calamity to the Indians of this country. When they have once obtained the mastery of any house it is impossible to expel them, and the Indians have frequently different houses, to which they resort occasionally when the fleas have rendered their permanent residence intolerable; yet in spite of these precautions every Indian is constantly attended by multitudes of them, and no one comes into our houses without leaving behind him swarms of these tormenting insects.

THE CHINOOKS ON THE PACIFIC.

The men are low in stature, rather ugly, and ill made; their legs being small and crooked, their feet large, and their heads, like those of the women, flattened in a most disgusting manner. These deformities are in part concealed by robes made of sea-otter, deer, elk, beaver, or fox skins. They also employ in their dress robes of the skin of a cat peculiar to this country, and of another animal of the same size, which is light and durable, and sold at a high price by the Indians, who bring it from above. In addition to these are worn blankets, wrappers of red, blue, or spotted cloth, and some sailors' old clothes, which were very highly prized. The greater part of the men have guns, powder, and ball.

The women have in general handsome faces, but are low and disproportioned

portioned, with small feet and large legs and thighs, occasioned, probably, by strands of beads, or various strings, drawn so tight above the ankles as to prevent the circulation of the blood. Their dress, like that of the Wahkiacums, consists of a short robe, and a tissue of cedar bark. Their hair hangs loosely down the shoulders and back; and their ears, neck, and wrists, are ornamented with blue beads. Another decoration, which is very highly prized, consists of figures, made by puncturing the arms or legs; and on the arm of one of the squaws we observed the name of J. Bowman, executed in the same way. In language, habits, and in almost every other particular, they resemble the Clatsops, Cathlamahs, and indeed all the people near the mouth of the Columbia.

TRIBES ON THE PACIFIC.

To the south our personal observation has not extended beyond the Killamucks; but we obtained from those who were acquainted with the sea-coast a list of the Indian tribes, in the order in which they succeed each other, to a considerable distance. The first nation to the south are the Clatsops, who reside on the southern side of the bay, and along the sea-coast, on both sides of point Adams. They are represented as the remains of a much larger nation; but about four years ago a disorder, to which till then they were strangers, but which seems, from their description, to have been the small-pox, destroyed four chiefs, and several hundreds of the nation.—Next to them, along the south-east coast, is a much larger nation, the Killamucks, who number fifty houses, and a thousand souls.

Adjoining the Killamucks, and in a direction S.S.E. are the Lucktons, a small tribe inhabiting the sea-coast. They speak the same language as the Killamucks, but do not belong to the same nation. The same observation applies to the Kahunkle nation, their immediate neighbours, who are supposed to consist of about four hundred souls.

The Lickawis, a still more numerous nation, who have a large town of eight hundred souls.

The Youkone nation, who live in very large houses, and number seven hundred souls.

The Necketo nation, of the same number of persons.

The Ulseah nation, a small town of one hundred and fifty souls.

The Youitts, a tribe who live in a small town, containing not more than one hundred and fifty souls.

The Shiastuckle nation, who have a large town of nine hundred souls.

The Killawats nation, of five hundred souls collected into one large town.

With this last nation ends the language of the Killamucks; and the coast, which then turns towards the south-west, is occupied by nations whose languages vary from that of the Killamucks, and from each other. Of these the first in order are,

The Cookoose, a large nation of one thousand five hundred souls, inhabiting the shore of the Pacific and the neighbouring mountains. We have seen several of this nation, who were taken prisoners by the Clatsops and Killamucks. Their complexion was much fairer than that of the Indians near the mouth of the Columbia, and their heads were not flattened. Next to these are,

The Shalalahs, of whom we know nothing, except their numbers, which are computed at twelve hundred souls. Then follow,

The Luckasos, of about the same number, and

The Hannakalals, whom we estimate at six hundred souls.

This is the extent of the Indian information, and judging, as we can do, with considerable accuracy, from the number of sleeps, or days' journey, the distance which these tribes occupy along the coast may be estimated at three hundred and sixty miles.

On the north of the Columbia we have already seen the Chinooks, of four hundred souls, along the shores of Haley's bay, and the low grounds on Chinook river. Their nearest neighbours to the north-east are,

The Killaxthokle, a small nation on the coast, of not more than eight houses, and a hundred souls. To these succeed

The Chilts, who reside above Point Lewis, and who are estimated at seven hundred souls, and thirty-eight houses. Of this nation we saw, transiently, a few among the Chinooks, from whom they did not appear to differ. Beyond the Chilts we have seen none of the north-west Indians, and all that we learnt consisted of an enumeration of their

their names and numbers. The nations next to the Chilts are,

The Clamotomish, of twelve houses, and two hundred and sixty souls.

The Potoashees, of ten houses, and two hundred souls.

The Pailsk, of ten houses, and two hundred souls.

The Quinults, of sixty houses, and one thousand souls.

The Chillates, of eight houses, and one hundred and fifty souls.

The Calasthorte, of ten houses, and two hundred souls.

The Quinnechant, consisting of two thousand souls.

BURIAL OF THEIR DEAD.

The Chinooks, Clatsops, and most of the adjoining nations, dispose of the dead in canoes. For this purpose a scaffold is erected, by fixing perpendicularly in the ground four long pieces of split timber. These are placed two by two, just wide enough apart to admit the canoe, and sufficiently long to support its two extremities. The boards are connected by a bar of wood run through them at the height of six feet, on which is placed a small canoe, containing the body of the deceased, carefully wrapped in a robe of dressed skins, with a paddle, and some articles belonging to the deceased, by his side. Over this canoe is placed one of a larger size, reversed, with its gunwale resting on the crossbars, so as to cover the body completely. One or more large mats of rushes or flags are then rolled round the canoes, and the whole secured by cords, usually made of the bark of the white cedar. On these crossbars are hung different articles of clothing, or culinary utensils. The method practised by the Killamucks differs somewhat from this; the body being deposited in an oblong box of plank, which, with the paddle and other articles, is placed in a canoe, resting on the ground.

IMPLEMENTS.

The implements used in hunting by the Clatsops, Chinooks, and other neighbouring nations, are the gun, bow and arrow, deadfall, pits, snares, and spears or gigs. The guns are generally old American or British muskets repaired for this trade; and although there are some good pieces among them they are constantly out of order, as the Indians have not been sufficiently accustomed to arms to understand the management of them. The powder is kept in small japanned

tin flasks, in which the traders sell it; and when the ball or shot fails they make use of gravel or pieces of metal from their pots, without being sensible of the injury done to their guns. These arms are reserved for hunting elk, and the few deer and bears in this neighbourhood; but as they have no rifles they are not very successful hunters. The most common weapon is the bow and arrow, with which every man is provided, even though he carries a gun, and which is used in every kind of hunting. The bow is extremely neat, and being very thin and flat, possesses great elasticity. It is made of the heart of the white cedar, about two feet and a half in length, two inches wide at the centre, whence it tapers to the width of half an inch at the extremities; and the back is covered with the sinews of elk, fastened on by means of a glue made from the sturgeon. The string is formed of the same sinews. The arrow generally consists of two parts; the first is about twenty inches long, and formed of light white pine, with the feather at one end, and at the other a circular hole, which receives the second part, formed of some harder wood, and about five inches long, and secured in its place by means of sinews. The barb is either stone, or else of iron or copper, in which latter place, the angle is more obtuse than any we have seen. If, as sometimes happens, the arrow is formed of a single piece, the whole is of a more durable wood, but the form just described is preferred: because, as much of the game consists of wild fowl, on the ponds, it is desirable that they should be constructed so as to float, if they fall into the water. These arrows are kept in a quiver of elk or young bear skin, opening not at the ends, as the common quivers, but at the sides; which, for those who hunt in canoes, is much more convenient.

THEIR CANOES.

The industry of the Indians is not confined to household utensils: the great proof of their skill is the construction of their canoes. In a country, indeed, where so much of the intercourse between different tribes is carried on by water, the ingenuity of the people would naturally direct itself to the improvement of canoes, which would gradually become, from a mere safe conveyance, an elegant ornament. We have accordingly seen, on the Columbia,

Columbia, canoes of many forms, beginning with the simple boats near the mountains, to those more highly decorated, because more useful, nearer the mouth of the Columbia. Below the grand cataract there are four forms of canoes: the first and smallest is about fifteen feet long, and calculated for one or two persons: it is, indeed, by no means remarkable in its structure, and is chiefly employed by the Cathlamahs and Wahkiacums among the marshy islands. The second is from twenty to thirty-five feet long, about two and a half or three feet in the beam, and two feet in the hold. It is chiefly remarkable in having the bowsprit, which rises to some height above the bow, formed by tapering gradually from the sides into a sharp point. Canoes of this shape are common to all the nations below the grand rapids.

But the canoes most used by the Columbia Indians, from the Chilluckitquaws inclusive, to the ocean, are about thirty or thirty-five feet long. The bow, which looks more like the stern of our boats, is higher than the other end, and is ornamented with a sort of comb, an inch in thickness, cut out of the same log which forms the canoe, and extending nine or eleven inches from the bowsprit to the bottom of the boat. The stern is nearly rounded off, and gradually ascends to a point. This canoe is very light and convenient; for though it will contain ten or twelve persons, it may be carried with great ease by four.

The fourth and largest species of canoe we did not meet till we reached tide water, near the grand rapids below, in which place they are found among all the nations, especially the Killamucks, and others residing on the sea-coast. They are upwards of fifty feet long, and will carry from eight to ten thousand pounds weight, or from twenty to thirty persons.

NATION OF THE COAST.

The Killamucks, Clatsops, Chinooks, and Cathlamahs, the four neighbouring nations with whom we have had most intercourse, preserve a general resemblance in person, dress, and manners. They are commonly of a diminutive stature, badly shaped, and their appearance by no means prepossessing. They have broad thick flat feet, thick ankles, and crooked legs: the last of which deformities is to be ascribed, in

part, to the universal practice of squatting, or sitting on the calves of their legs and heels, and also to the tight bandages of beads and strings worn round the ankles, by the women, which prevent the circulation of the blood, and render the legs, of the females particularly, ill-shaped and swollen. The complexion is the usual copper coloured brown of the North American tribes, though the complexion is rather lighter than that of the Indians of the Missouri, and the frontier of the United States: the mouth is wide and the lips thick; the nose of a moderate size, fleshy, wide at the extremities, with large nostrils, and generally low between the eyes, though there are rare instances of high aquiline noses; the eyes are generally black, though we occasionally see them of a dark yellowish brown, with a black pupil.

FLATTING THE HEAD.

The most distinguishing part of their physiognomy is the peculiar flatness and width of their forehead, a peculiarity which they owe to one of those customs by which nature is sacrificed to fantastic ideas of beauty. The custom, indeed, of flattening the head by artificial pressure during infancy, prevails among all the nations we have seen west of the Rocky mountains.

But wherever it may have begun, the practice is now universal among these nations. Soon after the birth of her child, the mother, anxious to procure for her infant the recommendation of a broad forehead, places it in the compressing machine, where it is kept for ten or twelve months; though the females remain longer than the boys. The operation is so gradual, that it is not attended with pain; but the impression is deep and permanent. The heads of the children, when they are released from the bandage, are not more than two inches thick about the upper edge of the forehead, and still thinner above: nor with all its efforts can nature ever restore its shape; the heads of grown persons being often in a straight line from the nose to the top of the forehead.

GAMING.

The natural vice of all these people is an attachment for games of hazard, which they pursue with a strange and ruinous avidity. The games are of two kinds. In the first, one of the company assumes the office of banker, and plays against the rest. He takes a small stone, about the size of a bean, which

which he shifts from one hand to the other with great dexterity, repeating at the same time a song adapted to the game, and which serves to divert the attention of the company, till having agreed on the stake, he holds out his hands, and the antagonist wins or loses as he succeeds or fails at guessing in which hand the stone is. After the banker has lost his money, or whenever he is tired, the stone is transferred to another, who in turn challenges the rest of the company. The other game is something like the play of ninepins: two pins are placed on the floor, about the distance of a foot from each other, and a small hole made behind them. The players then go about ten feet from the hole, into which they try to roll a small piece resembling the men used at draughts; if they succeed in putting it into the hole, they win the stake; if the piece rolls between the pins, but does not go into the hole, nothing is won or lost; but the wager is wholly lost if the checquer rolls outside of the pins. Entire days are wasted at these games, which are often continued through the night round the blaze of their fires, till the last article of clothing, or even the last blue bead, is won from the desperate adventurer.

INDIAN TRADE.

The great emporium is the Falls, where all the neighbouring nations assemble. The inhabitants of the Columbian plains, after having passed the winter near the mountains, come down as soon as the snow has left the valleys, and are occupied in collecting and drying roots, till about the month of May. They then crowd to the river, and fixing themselves on its north side, to avoid the incursions of the Snake Indians, continue fishing, till about the 1st of September, when the salmon are no longer fit for use. They then bury their fish and return to the plains, where they remain gathering quamash, till the snow obliges them to desist. They come back to the Columbia, and taking their store of fish, retire to the foot of the mountains, and along the creeks, which supply timber for houses, and pass the winter in hunting deer or elk, which, with the aid of their fish, enables them to subsist till, in the spring, they resume the circle of their employments. During their residence on the river, from May to September, or rather before they begin the regular fishery,

they go down to the Falls, carrying with them skins, mats, silk grass, rushes, and chappellell bread. They are here overtaken by the Chopunnish, and other tribes of the Rocky mountains, who descend the Kooskooskee and Lewis's river, for the purpose of selling bear-grass, horses, quamash, and a few skins which they have obtained by hunting, or in exchange for horses, with the Tushepaws.

At the Falls, they find the Chil-luckittequaws, Enceeshurs, Echeloots, and Skilloots, which last serve as intermediate traders or carriers between the inhabitants above and below the Falls. These tribes prepare pounded fish for the market; and the nations below bring wappatoo roots, the fish of the sea coast, berries, and a variety of trinkets and small articles which they have procured from the whites.

The trade then begins. The Chopunnish, and Indians of the Rocky mountains, exchange the articles which they have brought for wappatoo, pounded fish, and beads. The Indians of the plains, being their own fishermen, take only wappatoo, horses, beads, and other articles, procured from Europeans. The Indians, however, from Lewis's river to the Falls, consume as food or fuel all the fish which they take; so that the whole stock for exportation is prepared by the nations between the Towahnahooks and the Falls, and amounts, as nearly as we could estimate, to about thirty thousand weight, chiefly salmon, above the quantity which they use themselves, or barter with the more eastern Indians. This is now carried down the river by the Indians at the Falls, and is consumed among the nations at the mouth of the Columbia, who in return give the fish of the sea-coast, and the articles which they obtain from the whites. The neighbouring people catch large quantities of salmon and dry them, but they do not understand or practice the art of drying and pounding it in the manner used at the Falls, and being very fond of it, are forced to purchase it at high prices. This article, indeed, and the wappatoo, form the principal subjects of trade with the people of our immediate vicinity. The traffic is wholly carried on by water; there are even no roads or paths through the country, except across the portages which connect the creeks.

EUROPEAN

EUROPEAN VISITS.

But the circumstance which forms the soul of their trade, is the visit of the whites. They arrive generally about the month of April, and either remain until October, or return at that time; during which time, having no establishment on shore, they anchor on the north side of the bay, at the place already described, which is a spacious and commodious harbour, perfectly secure from all except the south and south-east winds; and, as they leave it before winter, they do not suffer from these winds, which, during that season, are the most usual and the most violent. This situation is recommended by its neighbourhood to fresh water and wood, as well as to excellent timber for repairs. Here they are immediately visited by the tribes along the sea-coast, by the Cathlamahs, and lastly by the Skilloots, that numerous and active people, who skirt the river between the marshy islands and the grand rapids, as well as the Coweliskee, and who carry down the fish prepared by their immediate neighbours the Chilluckittequaws, Eneeshurs, and Echeeloots, residing from the grand rapids to the Falls, as well as all the articles which they have procured in barter at the market in May. The accumulated trade of the Columbia now consists of dressed and undressed skins of elk, sea otter, the common otter, beaver, common fox, spuck, and tiger cat. The articles of less importance, are a small quantity of dried or pounded salmon, the biscuits made of the chappellet roots, and some of the manufactures of the neighbourhood. In return they receive guns (which are principally old British or American muskets), powder, ball and shot, copper and brass kettles, brass tea-kettles, and coffee-pots, blankets, from two to three points, coarse scarlet and blue cloth, plates and strips of sheet copper and brass, large brass wire, knives, tobacco, fish-hooks, buttons, and a considerable quantity of sailors' hats, trowsers, coats, and shirts. But, as we have had occasion to remark more than once, the objects of foreign trade which are the most desired, are the common cheap blue or white beads, of about fifty or seventy to the penny-weight, which are strung on strands a fathom in length, and sold by the yard or the length of both arms: of these the

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blue beads, which are called *tia com-mashuck*, or chief beads, hold the first rank in their ideas of relative value: the most inferior kind are esteemed beyond the finest wampum, and are temptations which can always seduce them to part with their most valuable effects. Indeed, if the example of civilized life did not completely vindicate their choice, we might wonder at their infatuated attachment to a bauble in itself so worthless. Yet these beads are, perhaps, quite as reasonable objects of research as the precious metals, since they are at once beautiful ornaments for the person, and the great circulating medium of trade with all the nations on the Columbia.

These strangers who visit the Columbia for the purpose of trade or hunting, must be either English or Americans. The Indians inform us that they speak the same language as we do, and indeed the few words which the Indians have learnt from the sailors, such as musket, powder, shot, knife, file, heave the lead, damned rascal, and other phrases of that description, evidently show that the visitors speak the English language. But, as the greater part of them annually arrive in April, and either remain till autumn, or revisit them at that time, which we could not clearly understand, the trade cannot be direct from either England or the United States, since the ships could not return thither during the remainder of the year. When the Indians are asked where these traders go on leaving the Columbia, they always point to the southwest, whence we presume that they do not belong to any establishment at Nootka Sound. The names and description of all these persons who visit them in the spring and autumn are remembered with great accuracy, and we took down, exactly as they were pronounced, the following list: The favourite trader is

Mr. Haley, who visits them in a vessel with three masts, and continues some time. The others are,

Youens, who comes also in a three masted vessel, and is a trader.

Tallamon, in a three masted vessel, but he is not a trader.

Callalamet, in a ship of the same size; he is a trader, and they say has a wooden leg.

Swipton, three masted vessel, trader.

4 L

Moore,

Moore, four masted vessel, trader.
 Mackey, three do. do.
 Washington, three do. do.
 Mesship, three do. do.
 Davidson, three do. does not
 trade, but hunts elk.

Jackson, three masted vessel, trader.
 Bolch, three do. do.
 Skelley, also a trader, in a vessel
 with three masts, but he has been
 gone for some years. He had only one
 eye.

THEIR VEGETABLES.

The vegetable productions of the
 country, which furnish a large pro-
 portion of the food of the Indians, are
 the roots of a species of thistle, the
 fern, the rush, the liquorice, and a
 small cylindric root, resembling in
 flavour and consistency the sweet po-
 tatoe.

FRUITS.

The native fruits and berries in use
 among the Indians, are what they call
 the shallun; the solme; the cranberry;
 a berry like the black haw; the scar-
 let berry, of the plant called saca-
 commis; a purple berry, like the
 huckleberry.

TREES.

The trees of a larger growth are
 very abundant; the whole neighbour-
 hood of the coast is supplied with
 great quantities of excellent timber.
 The predominating growth is the fir,
 of which we have seen several species.
 There is one singular circumstance at-
 tending all the pine of this country,
 which is, that when consumed it yields
 not the slightest particle of ashes.
 The first species grows to an immense
 size, and is very commonly twenty-
 seven feet in circumference, six feet
 above the earth's surface: they rise to
 the height of two hundred and thirty
 feet, and one hundred and twenty of
 that height without a limb. We have
 often found them thirty-six feet in cir-
 cumference. One of our party mea-
 sured one, and found it be forty-two
 feet in circumference, at a point be-
 yond the reach of an ordinary man.

The second is a much more common
 species, and constitutes at least one
 half of the timber in this neighbour-
 hood. It seems to resemble a spruce,
 rising from one hundred and sixty to
 one hundred and eighty feet, and is
 from four to six in diameter, straight,
 round, and regularly tapering.

The third species resembles in all
 points the Canadian balsam fir. It

grows from two and a half to four feet
 in diameter, and rises to the height of
 eighty or an hundred feet.

The fourth species in size resembles
 the second.

The fifth species in size resembles
 the second, and has a trunk simple,
 branching, and proliferous.

The sixth species does not differ
 from what is usually denominated the
 white pine in Virginia.

The seventh and last species grows
 in low grounds, and in places fre-
 quently overflowed by the tide, seldom
 rising higher than thirty-five feet, and
 not more than from two and a half to
 four in diameter.

There is a tree common to the Co-
 lumbia river, below the entrance of
 Cataract river, when divested of its
 foliage, much resembling the ash:
 this tree is frequently three feet in
 diameter, and rises from forty to fifty
 feet: the fruit is a winged seed, some-
 what resembling that of the maple.

In the same part of the country
 there is also another growth, resem-
 bling the white maple, though much
 smaller, and is seldom to be seen of
 more than six or seven inches in dia-
 meter. These trees grow in clusters,
 from fifteen to twenty feet in height,
 from the same bed of roots, spreading
 and leaning outwards.

The undergrowth consists of honey-
 suckles, alder, seven bark or nine bark,
 huckleberry, a shrub like the quill-
 wood, a plant like the mountain holly,
 a green briar, the fern.

QUADRUPEDS.

The quadrupeds of this country from
 the Rocky mountains to the Pacific
 Ocean, may be conveniently divided
 into the domestic and the wild animals.
 The first embraces the horse and dog
 only.

The horse appears to be of an ex-
 cellent race, lofty, elegantly formed,
 active and durable: many of them ap-
 pear like fine English coursers; some
 of them are pied, with large spots of
 white irregularly scattered, and inter-
 mixed with a dark brown bay: the
 greater part, however, are of an uni-
 form colour, marked with stars and
 white feet, and resemble in fleetness
 and bottom, as well as in form and
 colour, the best blooded horses of
 Virginia.

The dog is unusually small, about
 the size of an ordinary cur: he is usu-
 ally parti-coloured, amongst which, the

the black, white, brown, and brindle, are the colours most predominant.

The second division comprehends the brown, white, or grisly bear, the black bear; the deer, common red deer, the black-tailed fallow deer, the mule deer, the elk, the wolves, the large brown wolf, the small wolf of the plains, the tiger-cat, the foxes, the common red fox, the silver fox, the fisher or black fox, the large red fox of the plains, the kit-fox, or small fox of the plains, the antelope, the sheep, beaver, common otter, sea-otter, mink, seal, racoon, squirrels, large gray squirrel, small gray squirrel, small brown squirrel, ground squirrel, braro, rat, mouse, mole, panther, hare, rabbit, polecat or skunk.

BIRDS.

The birds which we have seen between the Rocky mountains and the Pacific may be divided into two classes, the terrestrial and the aquatic. In the former class are to be arranged,

1. The grouse or prairie-hen. This is peculiarly the inhabitant of the great plains of the Columbia, and does not differ from those of the upper portion of the Missouri.

2. The cock of the plains is found on the plains of the Columbia in great abundance, from the entrance of the south-east fork of the Columbia to that of Clarke's river. It is about two and three-fourths the size of our ordinary turkey.

3. The pheasant, of which we distinguish the large black and white pheasant, the small speckled pheasant, the small brown pheasant.

4. The buzzard is, we believe, the largest bird of North America. One which was taken by our hunters was not in good condition, and yet the weight was twenty-five pounds.

The aquatic birds are, the large blue and brown heron; the fishing hawk; the blue-crested fisher; several species of gulls; the cormorant; two species of loons; brant of two kinds; geese; swan; and several species of ducks.

FISH.

The fish which we have had an opportunity of seeing, are the whale, porpoise, skait, flounder, salmon, red char, two species of salmon trout, mountain or speckled trout, bottlenose, anchovy, and sturgeon.

Of shell-fish we observe the clam, periwinkle, common muscle, the cockle, and a species with a circular flat shell.

The reptiles of this country are the rattlesnake, the gartersnake, lizard, and snail.

RETURN OF THE PARTY.

Many reasons had determined us to remain at fort Clatsop till the 1st of April. Besides the want of fuel in the Columbian plains, and the impracticability of passing the mountains before the beginning of June, we were anxious to see some of the foreign traders, from whom, by means of our ample letters of credit, we might have recruited our exhausted stores of merchandise. About the middle of March, however, we became seriously alarmed for the want of food: the elk, our chief dependence, had at length deserted their usual haunts in our neighbourhood, and retreated to the mountains. We were too poor to purchase other food from the Indians, so that we were sometimes reduced, notwithstanding all the exertions of our hunters, to a single day's provision in advance. The men too, whom the constant rains and confinement had rendered unhealthy, might, we hoped, be benefited by leaving the coast, and resuming the exercise of travelling. We therefore determined to leave fort Clatsop, ascend the river slowly, consume the month of March in the woody country, where we hope to find subsistence, and in this way reach the plains about the 1st of April, before which time it will be impossible to attempt crossing them: for this purpose we began our preparations. During the winter we had been very industrious in dressing skins, so that we now had a sufficient quantity of clothing, besides between three and four hundred pair of moccasins. But the whole stock of goods on which we are to depend, either for the purchase of horses or of food, during the long tour of nearly four thousand miles, is so much diminished, that it might all be tied in two handkerchiefs. We have in fact nothing but six blue robes, one of scarlet, a coat and hat of the United States' artillery uniform, five robes made of our large flag, and a few old clothes trimmed with ribbon. We therefore feel that our chief dependence must be on our guns, which, fortunately for us, are all in good order, as we had taken the precaution of bringing a number of extra locks, and one of our men proved to be an excellent artist in that way. The powder had been secured in leaden canisters,

ters, and, though on many occasions they had been under water, it remained perfectly dry, and we now found ourselves in possession of one hundred and forty pounds of powder, and twice that quantity of lead, a stock quite sufficient for the route homewards.

WAPPATOO ISLAND.

The visit of Captain Clarke to the Multnomahs, now enabled us to combine all that we had seen or learnt of the neighbouring countries and nations. Of these the most important spot is Wappatoo island, a large extent of country lying between the Multnomah, and an arm of the Columbia, which we have called Wappatoo inlet, and separated from the main land by a sluice eighty yards wide, which at the distance of seven miles up the Multnomah connects that river with the inlet. The island thus formed is about twenty miles long, and varies in breadth from five to ten miles: the land is high and extremely fertile, and on most parts is supplied with a heavy growth of cottonwood, ash, the large-leaved ash, and sweet willow, the black alder, common to the coast, having now disappeared. But the chief wealth of this island consists of the numerous ponds in the interior, abounding with the common arrowhead (*sagittaria sagittifolia*) to the root of which is attached a bulb growing beneath it in the mud. This bulb, to which the Indians give the name of wappatoo, is the great article of food, and almost the staple article of commerce on the Columbia. It is never out of season; so that at all times of the year, the valley is frequented by the neighbouring Indians who come to gather it. It is collected chiefly by the women, who employ for the purpose canoes from ten to fourteen feet in length, about two feet wide, and nine inches deep, and tapering from the middle, where they are about twenty inches wide. They are sufficient to contain a single person and several bushels of roots, yet so very light that a woman can carry them with ease; she takes one of these canoes into a pond where the water is as high as the breast, and, by means of her toes, separates from the root this bulb, which on being freed from the mud rises immediately to the surface of the water, and is thrown into the canoe. In this manner these patient females remain in the water for several hours, even in the depth of winter. This plant is found through

the whole extent of the valley in which we now are, but does not grow on the Columbia farther eastward. This valley is bounded westward by the mountainous country bordering the coast, from which it extends eastward thirty miles in a direct line, till it is closed by the range of mountains crossing the Columbia above the great Falls. Its length from north to south we are unable to determine, but we believe that the valley must extend to a great distance: it is in fact the only desirable situation for a settlement on the western side of the Rocky mountains, and being naturally fertile, would, if properly cultivated, afford subsistence for forty or fifty thousand souls. The highlands are generally of a dark rich loam, not much injured by stones, and, though waving, by no means too steep for cultivation; and a few miles from the river they widen, at least on the north side, into rich extensive prairies. The timber on them is abundant, and consists almost exclusively of the several species of fir already described, and some of which grow to a great height. We measured a fallen tree of that species, and found that, including the stump of about six feet, it was three hundred and eighteen feet in length, though its diameter was only three feet. The dogwood is also abundant on the uplands: it differs from that of the United States in having a much smoother bark, and in being much larger, the trunk attaining a diameter of nearly two feet. There is some white cedar of a large size, but no pine of any kind. In the bottom lands are the cottonwood ash, large-leaved ash, and sweet willow. Interspersed with these are the pashequaw, shanataque, and compound fern, of which the natives use the roots; the red-flowering currant abounds on the upland, while along the river bottoms grow luxuriantly the water cress, strawberry, cinquefoil, narrowdock, sandrush, and the flowering pea, which is not yet in bloom. There is also a species of the bear's-claw now blooming, but the large-leaved thorn has disappeared, nor do we see any longer the huckle-berry, the shallun, nor any of the other ever-green shrubs which bear berries, except the species the leaf of which has a prickly margin.

The trade of all the inhabitants is in anchovies, sturgeon, but chiefly in wappatoo, to obtain which, the inhabitants,

bitants, both above and below them on the river, come at all seasons, and supply in turn beads, cloth, and various other articles procured from the Europeans.

SINGULAR APPEARANCE.

During the whole course of the Columbia from the Rapids to the Chiluckittequaws are the trunks of many large pine-trees standing erect in the water, which is thirty feet deep at present, and never less than ten. These trees could never have grown in their present state, for they are all very much doated, and none of them vegetate; so that the only reasonable account which can be given of this phenomenon is, that at some period, which the appearance of the trees induces us to fix within twenty years, the rocks from the hill sides have obstructed the narrow pass at the Rapids, and caused the river to spread through the woods.

THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

The country along the Rocky mountains for several hundred miles in length, and about fifty wide, is a high level plain, in all its parts extremely fertile, and in many places covered with a growth of tall long-leaved pine. This plain is chiefly interrupted near the streams of water, where the hills are steep and lofty; but the soil is good, being unincumbered by much stone, and possesses more timber than the level country. Under shelter of these hills, the bottom lands skirt the margin of the rivers, and though narrow and confined, are still fertile, and rarely inundated. Nearly the whole of this wide-spread tract is covered with a profusion of grass and plants, which are at this time as high as the knee. Among these are a variety of esculent plants and roots, acquired without much difficulty, and yielding not only a nutritious but a very agreeable food. The air is pure and dry, the climate quite as mild, if not milder, than the same parallels of latitude in the Atlantic States, and must be equally healthy, for all the disorders which we have witnessed, may fairly be imputed more to the nature of the diet than to any intemperance of climate. This general observation is of course to be qualified, since in the same tract of country, the degrees of the combination of heat and cold obey the influence of situation. Thus the rains of the low grounds near our camp are snows in the high plains, and while

the sun shines with intense heat in the confined bottoms, the plains enjoy a much colder air, and the vegetation is retarded at least fifteen days, while at the foot of the mountains the snows are still many feet in depth; so that within twenty miles of our camp we observe the rigours of the winter cold, the cool air of spring, and the oppressive heat of midsummer. Even on the plains, however, where the snow has fallen, it seems to do but little injury to the grass and other plants, which, though apparently tender and susceptible, are still blooming, at the height of nearly eighteen inches through the snow. In short, this district affords many advantages to settlers, and, if properly cultivated, would yield every object necessary for the subsistence and comfort of civilized man.

The Chopunnish themselves are in general stout, well formed, and active; they have high, and many of them aquiline, noses, and the general appearance of the face is cheerful and agreeable, though without any indication of gaiety and mirth. Like most of the Indians they extract their beards; but the women only pluck the hair from the rest of the body. That of the men is very often suffered to grow, nor does there appear to be any natural deficiency in that respect; for we observe several men, who, if they had adopted the practice of shaving, would have been as well supplied as ourselves. The dress of both sexes resembles that of the Shoshonees, and consists of a long shirt reaching to the thigh, leggings as high as the waist, moccasins and robes, all of which are formed of skins.

Their ornaments are beads, shells, and pieces of brass attached to different parts of the dress, or tied round the arms, neck, wrists, and over the shoulders: to these are added pearls and beads, suspended from the ears, and a single shell of wampum through the nose. The head-dress of the men is a bandeau of fox or otter skin, either with or without the fur, and sometimes an ornament is tied to a plait of hair, falling from the crown of the head: that of the women is a cap without rim, formed of bear grass and cedar bark; while the hair itself, of both sexes, falls in two rows down the front of the body. Collars of bears' claws are also common. But a personal

sonal ornament most esteemed is a sort of breastplate, formed of a strip of otter skin, six inches wide, cut out of the whole length of the back of the animal, including the head; this being dressed with the hair on, a hole is made at the upper end, through which the head of the wearer is placed, and the skin hangs in front with the tail reaching below the knee, and ornamented with pieces of pearl, red cloth, and wampum; or, in short, any other fanciful decoration. Tippetts also are occasionally worn. That of Hohastillpilp was formed of human scalps, and adorned with the thumbs and fingers of several men slain by him in battle.

The Chopunnish are among the most amiable men we have seen. Their character is placid and gentle, rarely moved into passion, yet not often enlivened by gaiety. Their amusements consist in running races, shooting with arrows at a target, and they partake of the great and prevailing vice of gambling. They are, however, by no means so much attached to baubles as the generality of Indians, but are anxious to obtain articles of utility, such as knives, tomahawks, kettles, blankets, and awls for moccasins. They have also suffered so much from the superiority of their enemies, that they are equally desirous of procuring arms and ammunition, which they are gradually acquiring, for the band of Tunnachemootolt have already six guns, which they acquired from the Minnetarees.

The Chopunnish bury their dead in sepulchres, formed of boards, constructed like the roof of a house. The body is rolled in skins and laid one over another, separated by a board only, both above and below. We have sometimes seen their dead buried in wooden boxes, and rolled in skins in the manner above-mentioned. They sacrifice their horses, canoes, and every other species of property to their dead; the bones of many horses are seen lying round their sepulchres.

THE YELLOWSTONE RIVER.

The Rochejaune, or Yellowstone river, according to Indian information, has its remote sources in the Rocky mountains, near the peaks of the Rio del Norte, on the confines of New Mexico, to which country there is a good road during the whole distance along the banks of the Yellowstone. Its western waters are probably con-

nected with those of Lewis's river, while the eastern branches approach the heads of Clarke's river, the Bighorn, and the Platte; so that it waters the middle portion of the Rocky mountains for several hundred miles from north-west to south-east. During its whole course from the point at which Captain Clarke reached it to the Missouri, a distance which he computed at eight hundred and thirty-seven miles, this river is large and navigable for perioques, and even batteaux, there being none of the moving sandbars which impede the navigation of the Missouri, and only a single ledge of rocks, which, however, is not difficult to pass. Even its tributary waters, the Bighorn, Clarke's fork, and Tongue river, may be ascended in boats for a considerable distance. The banks of the river are low, but bold, and no where subject to be overflowed, except for a short distance below the mountains. The predominating colour of the river is a yellowish brown; that of the Missouri, which possesses more mud, is of a deep drab colour; the bed of the former being chiefly composed of loose pebble; which, however, diminish in size in descending the river, till, after passing the Lazeka, the pebble cease as the river widens, and the mud and sand continue to form the greater part of the bottom. Over these the water flows with a velocity constantly and almost equally decreasing in proportion to its distance from the mountains. From the mountains to Clarke's fork, the current may be estimated at four and a half miles per hour; thence as low as the Bighorn, at three and a half miles; between that and the Lazeka at three miles; and from that river to the Wolf rapid, at two and three quarter miles; from which to its entrance, the general rapidity is two miles per hour. The appearance and character of the country present nearly similar varieties of fertile, rich, open lands. Above Clarke's fork, it consists of high waving plains bordered by stony hills, partially supplied with pine; the middle portion, as low as the Buffaloe shoals, contains less timber, and the number diminishes still lower, where the river widens, and the country spreads itself into extensive plains.

MUSQUITOES.

Monday, August 4. The camp became

became absolutely uninhabitable, in consequence of the multitude of mosquitoes; the men could not work in preparing skins for clothing, nor hunt in the timbered low grounds; in short, there was no mode of escape, except by going on the sandbars in the river; where, if the wind should blow, the insects do not venture; but when there is no wind, and particularly at night, when the men have no covering except their worn-out blankets, the pain they suffer is scarcely to be endured. There was also a want of meat, for the buffaloe were not to be found; and though the elk are very abundant, yet their fat and flesh is more difficult to dry in the sun, and is also much more easily spoiled than the meat or fat of either deer or buffaloe. Captain Clarke therefore determined to go on to some spot which should be free from mosquitoes, and furnish more game. After having written a note to Captain Lewis, to inform him of his intention, and stuck it on a pole, at the confluence of the two rivers, he loaded the canoes at five in the afternoon, and proceeded down the river to the second point, and encamped on a sandbar; but here the mosquitoes seemed to be even more numerous than above. The face of the Indian child is considerably puffed up and swollen with the bites of these animals, nor could the men procure scarcely any sleep during the night, and they continued to harass them the next morning. On one occasion Captain Clarke went on shore and ascended a hill after one of the bighorns; but the mosquitoes were in such multitudes that he could not keep them from the barrel of his rifle long enough to take aim.

EVAPORATION.

We had here (at Whitecatfish camp) occasion to remark the wonderful evaporation from the Missouri, which does not appear to contain more water, nor is its channel wider than at the distance of one thousand miles nearer its source, although within that space it receives about twenty rivers, some of them of considerable width, and a great number of creeks. This evaporation seems, in fact, to be greater now than when we ascended the river, for we are obliged to replenish the inkstand every day with fresh ink, nine-tenths of which must escape by evaporation.

TRAVELS
In Various Countries of
EUROPE, ASIA, and AFRICA,
BY
EDWARD DANIEL CLARKE, LL.D.
PART THE SECOND,
Greece, Egypt, and the Holy Land.
SECTION THE SECOND.
4to.—Sl. 3s.

[No two works can present, in matter and manner, a greater contrast than that which here follows and that which has gone before. Both treat of the same human nature, yet under what different aspects! One exhibits man unaided by the combinations of civilization and art, and the other contemplates him as the victim of diseased and perverted society, in which his energies have been destroyed by bad, corrupt, barbarous, and despotic governments! That part of the people of England, who are insensible of the value of liberty and peace, (the essence of which consists in independent checks of the different branches of the government on each other, and on nations doing to each other as they would be done unto) will render themselves and their posterity justice by turning their attention to the condition of the once-flourishing people which now degrade the human character, on the shores of the Mediterranean, and to the wretched Indian nations, whose miseries are respectively produced by despotism in their governments, and by incessant and wanton aggressions of ambitious chiefs. But Dr. Clarke's book is not useful merely from the political lesson which it teaches; on the contrary, it presents a rich feast to every inquisitive lover of letters, and every classical scholar; and, as we turn over his pages, our surprise is extorted by the variety of his researches and observations on subjects of ethics, natural history, and archeology, and by the acuteness displayed in his various reasonings on topics which have long excited the controversies of the learned. His former volumes have, however, received the approbation of the highest court of criticism, and we predict that a similar fortune will attend the present. Indeed, as it includes the interesting countries of Egypt and southern Greece, it is, to our taste, much superior to either of the former. His next volume promises also considerable entertainment, as including the northern provinces of Greece, and the author's route home through France. If the work, thus extended, becomes voluminous, its extent has not at present exceeded its claims on the public attention; and, if it is one of the largest

largest works describing the travels of an individual, every reader will acknowledge that it is at the same time of commensurate worth.]

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DJEZZAR.

In our last visit to old Djazzar, we found his health visibly on the decline; but there was nothing he seemed more anxious to conceal from the knowledge of his subjects. The well-known fable of the dying lion was constantly present to his imagination; and no one better understood its moral application. Like the generality of ancient fables, it is, in fact, strikingly applicable to the policy and manners of Eastern nations. Although the repose and stillness of his charem were better suited to the preservation of his life than the public duties of his palace, he knew too well the consequences of a rumour purporting his inability to transact the affairs of his government, and therefore more readily granted audience to persons requesting admission to his presence; continuing his usual practice of cutting watch-papers, but being less ostentatious of his bodily vigour, and the exhibition of his Herculean strength. We found him, as before, with his feet bare, and a bottle of water by his side, but a more than ordinary covering of turbans appeared about his head and neck. Having thanked him for the many obligations he had conferred upon us, he inquired concerning our late journey, and seemed to possess great knowledge of the country, as well as some degree of information respecting its ancient history. Adverting to the dispute which took place between the author and one of the escort in the plain of Esdraelon, (of which he had been informed) he cautioned us against the imprudence of striking an Arab, unless with power to put him instantly to death; adding, "if you had been any where but in Djazzar's dominions, and under his protection, you would not have lived to tell the story. I know the inhabitants of this country better than any man, and have long found that they are not to be governed by halves. I have been deemed severe; but I trust you have found my name respected, and even beloved, notwithstanding my severity." This last

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observation was strictly true; for, in spite of all his cruelty, such was the veneration in which they held the name of Djazzar in many parts of the Holy Land, that many of the Arabs would have sacrificed their lives for him. As we were about to take leave he acknowledged, for the first time, that he did not feel himself well, and complained of want of sleep; asking us if we perceived any change in his health. His interpreter told us that he had never before known an instance of a similar confession; and augured, from this circumstance, that he would not long survive; which proved true, although his death did not immediately follow. His last moments were characteristic of his former life. The person whom he fixed upon for his successor, was among the number of his prisoners. Having sent for this man, he made known his intentions to him; telling him, at the same time, that he would never enjoy peaceful dominion while certain of the princes of the country existed. These men were then living as hostages in Djazzar's power. "You will not like to begin your reign," said he, "by slaughtering them; I will do that business for you:" accordingly, ordering them to be brought before him, he had them all put to death in his presence. Soon afterwards he died; leaving, as he had predicted, the undisturbed possession of a very extensive territory to his successor, Ismael Pasha; described by English travellers, who have since visited Acre, as a very amiable man, and in every thing the very reverse of this Herod of his time.

BAR OF THE NILE.

We left the Bay of Aboukir, August the eighth, about ten o'clock, A.M. As we drew near to the Rosetta mouth of the Nile, we observed that the signal-boat was not out. So many lives had been lost upon the bar, by not attending to this circumstance, and such positive injunctions issued by the commander-in-chief against attempting to pass when the signal was removed, that we supposed the Arabs belonging to the djerm would take us back to the fleet. The wind was, however, against our return; and the crew of the boat persisted in saying that a passage was practicable. It was accordingly attempted; but the surf soon drove us back, and we narrowly escaped

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escaped being overwhelmed by it. A second attempt was then made, nearer to the eastern side of the river's mouth. We prevailed upon some English sailors, who were on board, to let the Arabs have their own way, and not to interfere with the management of the djerm, however contrary it might seem to their usual maxims. Never was there a more fearful sight, nor a scene of greater confusion, than ensued when we reached the middle of the tremendous surf a second time. The yells of the Arabs, the oaths of the sailors, the roaring of the waters, the yawning gulphs occasionally disclosing to us the bare sand upon the bar, while we were tossed upon the boiling surf; and, to complete the whole, the spectacle afforded by another djerm swamped and wrecked before our eyes, as we passed with the velocity of lightning, unable to render the least assistance, can never be forgotten.

TRIPLE INSCRIPTION.

The first object, after entering the Rosetta branch, is the Castle, or Fort of St. Julian. In digging for the fortifications of this place, the French discovered the famous triple inscription, now in the British Museum: this will be ever valuable, even if the only information obtained from it were confined to a solitary fact,—that the hieroglyphic characters do exhibit *the writing of the priests* of Egypt. This truth will no longer be disputed; therefore the proper appellation for inscriptions in such characters ought to be *hierograms*, rather than *hieroglyphs*.

WAHABEES.

Rosetta may soon become a place of much more importance than it is at present, in consequence of the total cessation of pilgrimages to Mecca. The Wahabee Arabs have destroyed all the wells which formerly supplied the caravans with water; and nothing less than an army is necessary for their restoration.* Quaresmius, in mentioning the estimation wherein Rosetta, as the birth-place of Maho-

met, is held by the Moslems, long ago predicted, that, whenever the journeys to Mecca were interrupted, it would become the resort of Mahometan pilgrims.

TRIPLE HARVEST.

Soon after leaving Rosetta, we passed some extensive canals, conveying water to lands above the level of the river: these are supplied by wheels, sometimes turned by oxen, but more generally by buffaloes. They are banked by very lofty walls, constructed of mud, hardened by the sun. One of them, upon the western side of the river, extended to the Lake Maadie. The land, thus watered, produces three crops in each year; the first of clover, the second of corn, and the third of rice. The rice-grounds are inundated from the time of sowing nearly to harvest: the seed is commonly cast upon the water, a practice twice alluded to in Sacred Scripture. Balaam prophesied of Israel, that "his seed should be in many waters." In the directions given for charity by the son of David, it is written, "Cast thy bread upon the waters: for thou shalt find it after many days."

ARAB CUSTOMS.

The Arab crew of our boat washed their hands, faces, and teeth, before and after eating; cleaning their teeth with wood ashes, which they collected for that purpose from the fire for boiling our kettle. The common fuel used by the inhabitants of the country is prepared from a mixture of camel's dung, mud, and straw; these ingredients, being mixed as a paste, they collect into balls, which are flattened upon the walls of their huts for drying in the sun, and made into circular cakes. From the ashes of those cakes the muriat of ammonia is obtained, which is afterwards sent to Europe.

THE BANKS OF THE NILE.

Villages, in an almost uninterrupted succession, denoted a much greater population than we had imagined the country contained. Upon each side of the river, as far as the eye could sur-

* It is now five years since the Wahabees have prevented the pilgrims from performing their journey to Mecca. They have destroyed the cisterns in the desert; and it is impossible to have these repaired without sending an army to protect the workmen. This condition will hardly ever be fulfilled, as there are not more than

10,000 soldiers in all Syria; and the Wahabee chief has, at any time, more than 100,000 men mounted on camels, at his disposal. The interruption of this pilgrimage is considered by the Turks as a sign of the approaching desolation of the Turkish empire.

they, were rich fields of corn and rice, with such beautiful groves, seeming to rise out of the watery plains, and to shade innumerable settlements in the Delta, amidst never-ending plantations of melons and all kinds of garden vegetables, that, from the abundance of its produce, Egypt may be deemed the richest country in the world. Such is the picture exhibited to the native inhabitants, who are seasoned to withstand the disorders of the country, and can bear with indifference the attacks of myriads of all sorts of noxious animals; to whom mud and mosquitoes, or dust and vermin, are alike indifferent; who, having never experienced one comfortable feeling in the midst of their highest enjoyments, nor a single antidote to sorrow in the depths of wretchedness, vegetate, like the bananas and sycamores around them. But to strangers, and particularly to inhabitants of northern countries, where wholesome air and cleanliness are among the necessities of life, Egypt is the most detestable region upon earth. Upon the retiring of the Nile, the country is one vast swamp. An atmosphere, impregnated with every putrid and offensive exhalation, stagnates, like the filthy pools over which it broods. Then the plague regularly begins, nor ceases until the waters return again. Throughout the spring, intermitting fevers universally prevail. About the beginning of May certain winds cover even the sands of the desert with the most disgusting vermin.* The latest descendants of Pharaoh are not yet delivered from the evils which fell upon the land, when it was smitten by the hands of Moses and Aaron: the "plague of frogs," the "plague of lice," "the plague of flies," the "murrain, boils, and blains," prevail, so that the whole country is "corrupted," and "*the dust of the earth becomes lice, upon man and upon beast, throughout the land of Egypt.*" This application of the words of Scripture affords a literal exposition of existing facts; such an one as the statistics of the country do now warrant*.

* Sir Sidney Smith informed the Author, that one night, preferring a bed upon the sand of the desert to a night's lodging in the village of Etko, as thinking to be secure from vermin, he found himself, in the morning, entirely covered by them. Lice and scorpions abound in all the sandy desert near Alexandria.

SINGULAR ANIMAL APPEARANCE.

But the most remarkable animal appearance may be noticed by merely dipping a ladle or bucket into the midst of the torrent, which is everywhere dark with mud, and observing the swarms of animalculæ it contains. Among these, tadpoles and young frogs are so numerous, that, rapid as the current flows, there is no part of the Nile where the water does not contain them.

PHÆNOMENON OF SAND.

A singular phænomenon engrossed all our attention. One of those immense columns of sand, mentioned by Bruce, came rapidly towards us, turning upon its base as upon a pivot: it crossed the Nile so near us, that the whirlwind by which it was carried placed our vessel upon its beam-ends, bearing its large sail quite into the water, and nearly upsetting the boat. As we were engaged in righting the vessel, the column disappeared. It is not probable that those columns fall suddenly upon any particular spot, so as to be capable of overwhelming an army or a caravan; but that, as the sand, thus driven, is gradually accumulated, it becomes gradually dispersed, and, the column diminishing in its progress, at length disappears. A great quantity of sand is no doubt precipitated as the effect which gathers it becomes weaker; but, from witnessing such phænomena upon a smaller scale, it does not seem likely that the whole body of the sand is at once abandoned.

VIEW OF THE PYRAMIDS.

On Wednesday, the twelfth of August, we were roused, as soon as the sun dawned, by Antony, our faithful Greek servant and interpreter, with the intelligence that the Pyramids were in view. We hastened from the cabin, and never will the impression made by their appearance be obliterated. By reflecting the sun's rays, they appeared as white as snow, and of such surprising magnitude, that nothing we had previously conceived in our imagination had prepared us for the spectacle we beheld. The sight instantly convinced us that no power of description, no delineation, can convey ideas adequate to the effect produced in viewing these stupendous monuments. The formality of their structure is lost in their prodigious magnitude: the mind, elevated by wonder, feels at once the force of an axiom, which, however

ever disputed, experience confirms,—that in vastness, whatsoever be its nature, there dwells sublimity!

INTERIOR OF CAIRO.

To describe the interior of the city would be only to repeat what has been often said of all Turkish towns; with this difference, that there is not perhaps upon earth a more dirty metropolis. Every place is covered with dust; and its particles are so minute, that it rises into all the courts and chambers of the city. The streets are destitute of any kind of pavement: they exhibit, therefore, a series of narrow dusty lanes, between gloomy walls. It is well known that Europeans were formerly compelled to walk, or to ride upon asses, through these streets; nor had the practice been wholly abandoned when we arrived; for, although some of our officers appeared occasionally on horseback, many of them ambled about, in their uniforms, upon the jack-asses let for hire by the Arabs. Horses were not easily procured. To ride these, it was necessary first to buy them. And even when riding upon asses, if a favourable opportunity offered, when our military were not in sight, the attendants of the rich Turks, running on foot before their horses to clear the way, made every Christian descend and walk, until the bearded grandee had passed.

PLAGUES OF EGYPT.

The mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer seemed at this time fixed. It remained at 90° for several days, without the smallest perceptible change. Almost every European suffered an inflammation of the eyes. Many were troubled with cutaneous disorders. The prickly heat was very common. This was attributed to drinking the muddy water of the Nile, the inhabitants having no other. Their mode of purifying it, in a certain degree, is by rubbing the inside of the water-vessels with bruised almonds: this precipitates a portion of the mud, but it is never quite clear. Many persons were afflicted with sores upon the skin, which were called "*Boils of the Nile*;" and dysenterical complaints were universal. A singular species of lizard made its appearance in every chamber, having circular membranes at the extremity of its feet, which gave it such tenacity that it crawled upon panes of glass, or upon the surface of pendent mirrors. This revolting sight was common to every apartment, whether

in the houses of the rich or of the poor. At the same time, such a plague of flies covered all things with their swarms, that it was impossible to eat without hiring persons to stand by every table with feathers, or flappers, to drive them away. Liquor could not be poured into a glass; the mode of drinking was, by keeping the mouth of every bottle covered until the moment it was applied to the lips; and instantly covering it with the palm of the hand, when removing it to offer to any one else. The utmost attention to cleanliness, by a frequent change of every article of wearing apparel, could not repel the attacks of the swarms of vermin which seemed to infest even the air of the place. A gentleman made his appearance, before a party he had invited to dinner, completely covered with lice. The only explanation he could give as to the cause was, that he had sat for a short time in one of the boats upon the canal.

BRITISH ARMY FROM INDIA.

The Indian army under General Baird was encamped in the Isle of Rhouda, and presented the finest military spectacle it is possible to conceive; offering a striking contrast to the appearance of the troops from England, which were encamped upon the Alexandrian Plain. The Indian army, in possession of abundant supplies, and having all the comforts which wealth and power could bestow, might be considered rather as an encampment of mightiest princes than of private men. The tents of its subalterns were superior to the marquees of general-officers in the English army, where the Commander-in-chief lived as the poorest soldier, and wretchedness and privation were the standing orders of the day.* Every morning, at sun-rise, as in Lord Hutchinson's army, a gun was fired, and the whole line of the troops from India were under arms, amounting to 3000 men. At this hour, we often resorted to the Isle of Rhouda, to view the magnificent parade.

ARABIC

* The luxury and pomp of the Indian army may be conceived, by simply stating the fact, that glass lustres, manufactured in London, exported to India, and thence conveyed, after a voyage up the Red Sea, upon the backs of camels across the desert from Cosseir to the Nile, were suspended in the audience-pavilion of the Commander-in-chief.

ARABIC LANGUAGE.

Any Englishman hearing a party of Egyptian Arabs in conversation, and being ignorant of their language, would suppose they were quarrelling. The Arabic, as spoken by Arabs, is more guttural even than the Welsh; but the dialect of Egypt appeared to us to be particularly harsh. It is always spoken with a vehemence of gesticulation, and loudness of tone, which is quite a contrast to the stately sedate manner of speaking among the Turks: we were constantly impressed with a notion that the Arabs, in conversation, were quarrelling. More than once we ordered the interpreter to interfere, and to pacify them, when it appeared that we were mistaken, and that nothing was further from their feelings, at the time, than anger. The effect is not so unpleasing to the ear when Arab women converse; although the gesticulation is nearly the same.

STATE OF SOCIETY.

The effect, whether it be of climate, of education, or of government, is the same among all settlers in Egypt, except the Arabs; a disposition to exist without exertion of any kind; to pass whole days upon beds and cushions, smoking, and counting beads. This is what Maillet termed *Le vrai génie Egyptienne*; and that it may be acquired by residing among the native inhabitants of Cairo, is evident from the appearance exhibited by Europeans who have passed some years in the city.

BOOK MARKET.

We often visited the book-market, and found no sight more interesting than the prodigious number of beautiful manuscripts offered there for sale. We purchased many of these manuscripts. Writings of any celebrity bear very high prices, especially famous works in History, Astronomy,

in-chief. Breakfasting with a lieutenant of the sixty-first regiment, we were regaled with white bread, and fresh-butter, made upon the spot for the occasion, (which perhaps had never been seen before in Egypt,) fruit, cream, tea, coffee, and chocolate. The impression made by external splendour, upon men, characterized as are the inhabitants of the Turkish empire, is more effectual for the advancement of our political interests in the East, than the operations of war. An ignorant Moslem attaches higher ideas of power to the appearance of wealth, than to any effect of military strength.

Geography, and Natural History. The Mamalukes are more fond of reading than the Turks; and some of their libraries, in Cairo, contained volumes of immense price.

ANTIEN MEDALS IN CIRCULATION.

Who could have believed that ancient Roman coins were still in circulation in any part of the world? yet this is strictly true. We noticed Roman copper medals in Cairo, as given in exchange in the markets among the coins of the country, and valued at something less than our halfpenny. What is more remarkable, we obtained some of the large bronze medals of the Ptolemys, circulating at higher value, but in the same manner.

ELOHE!

The Arabs, who generally sing during labour, use the ancient Hebrew invocation of the Deity, while they are passing, in their boats, beneath a bridge: calling out ELOHE! ELOHE! in a plaintive singing tone of voice.

CITADEL OF CAIRO.

The most interesting parts of it to an English traveller, as connected with the history of the architecture of his country, are the splendid remains of buildings erected by the ancient Caliphs of Egypt, particularly the edifice vulgarly called "*Joseph's Palace*," built by Sultan *Salah ed din*, or *Saladine*, whose name was *Joseph*. Here we beheld those pointed arches, which, although constructed soon after the middle of the twelfth century, by a fanatic Moslem, (now ranked among the Mahometan Saints, for his rigid adherence to all the prejudices of Islam,) certain English antiquaries would fancifully attribute to the labours of English workmen.

To increase the interest excited by the examination of Sultan Saladine's magnificent palace, Mr. Hammer had the satisfaction to discover, among many Arabic inscriptions yet remaining in the great hall of the building, one in excellent preservation, and in large characters, which he copied, with this legend:

Salaheddin, Destroyer of Infidels and Heathens.

JOSEPH'S WELL.

One of the marvels of Egypt, in former times, was the fountain belonging to the Citadel, called "*Joseph's Well*;" but since the country has been accessible to enlightened travellers, it is no longer considered as any thing extraordinary.

extraordinary. A regular descent, by steps, has been cut to it, through the soft calcareous rock on which the Citadel stands, to the depth of two hundred and seventy-six feet. The mouth of the well is twenty-four feet in length, and eighteen in breadth. As an example of human labour, Niebuhr considers it to be not at all comparable to the works of the antient Indians, who have cut whole pagodas in the very hardest rocks.

VIEW FROM THE RAMPARTS.

Among all the sights which this extraordinary country presents to the eyes of an European traveller, there is nothing more novel than the view of objects beheld from the Citadel. A very considerable district, whether the spectator regard the East or the South, is distinguished by one uniform buff colour. Towards the North, this colour is opposed by the most vivid green that imagination can conceive; covering all the Delta. Upon the West are seen the Pyramids, reflecting the sun's beams, and as white as snow. In order that the reader may comprehend the exact situation of all that is seen from hence, this Chapter may conclude by a detail of the relative position of the different objects, as they were observed by a mariner's compass. This mode of description was frequently used by the celebrated Wheler, in the account he published of his Travels in Greece; and it will be occasionally adopted in the remaining Chapters of this Section.

VIEW FROM THE CITADEL OF CAIRO.

East.

A very unusual and striking spectacle; all the landscape being of a buff or bright stone colour; and the numerous buildings in view having the hue of the plains on which they stand. In the distance is an arid desert, without a single mark of vegetation. Nearer to the eye appear immense heaps of sand, the Obelisk of Heliopolis, and the stately mosques, minarets, and sepulchres, belonging to a Cœmetary of the Caliphs in a suburb of Cairo, called *Beladeensan*; a place crowded with buildings of a singular form.

South East.

Hills and broken mounds, disposed, in vast masses, with very great grandeur.

South.

A grand scene of desolation; the

same buff colour prevailing over every object. In the fore-ground are the lofty quarries of Mount Mokattam, with ruined castles, mouldering domes, and the remains of other edifices, above, below, and stretching beneath the heights, far into the plain. More distant, appear the mountains of Upper Egypt, flanking the eastern bank of the Nile, and a wide misty view of the *Saïd*.

South West, and West.

Immediately beneath the eye is seen the Aqueduct, supported by arches, and extending two miles in length, from the Nile to the Citadel; together with mosques, minarets, and immense heaps of sand. But the grand object, viewed in this direction, is the Nile itself. At this time, having attained its greatest elevation, extending over a wide surface, and flowing with great rapidity, it appeared covered with barges belonging to the army, and the various vessels of the country, spreading their enormous sails on every part of it. The Ruins of Old Cairo, the Island and groves of Rhouda, enrich this fine prospect. Beyond the river appears the town of Djiza, amidst the most beautiful groves of sycamore, fig, and palm-trees; still more remote, the Pyramids of Djiza and Saccara; and, beyond these, the great Libyan Desert, extending to the utmost verge of the visible horizon; a vast ocean of sand.

North West, and North.

The green plains of the Delta occupy all the distant perspective in this direction, like so many islands, covered with groves and gardens, and adorned with white edifices; among these the *djerms*, the *canjas*, and other beautiful boats of the Nile, are seen sailing.

North East.

The whole City of Cairo, extending from the North towards the North East, and surrounded, in the latter direction, by heaps of sand. Immediately beneath the spectator is seen a grand and gloomy structure, called *The Mosque of Sultan Hassan*, standing close to one of two lakes, which appear among the crowded buildings of the city.

Such is the surprising and highly diversified view from the Citadel of Grand Cairo. It will not be too much to affirm of this extraordinary prospect, that a scene more powerfully affecting the mind, by the singularity of its association,

sociation, is not elsewhere contained within any scope of human observation;—a profusion of Nature, amidst her most awful privation; a disciplined army, encamped amidst lawless banditti; British pavilions, and Bedouin tents; luxurious gardens, and barren deserts; the pyramid and the mosque; the obelisk and the minaret; the sublimest monuments of human industry, amidst mouldering reliques of Saracenic power.

VOYAGE TO THE PYRAMIDS.

Upon the twenty-third of August we set out for the Pyramids, the inundation enabling us to approach within less than a mile of the larger pyramid, in our *djerm*. Messrs. Hammer and Hamilton accompanied us. We arrived at Djiza by day-break, and called upon some English officers who wished to join our party upon this occasion. From Djiza, our approach to the Pyramids was through a swampy country, by means of a narrow canal, which however was deep enough; and we arrived without any obstacle, at nine o'clock, at the bottom of a sandy slope, leading up to the principal pyramid. Some Bedouin Arabs, who had assembled to receive us upon our landing, were much amused by the eagerness excited in our whole party, to prove who should first set his foot upon the summit of this artificial mountain. As we drew near its base, the effect of its prodigious magnitude, and the amazement caused in viewing the enormous masses used in its construction, affected every one of us; but it was an impression of awe and fear, rather than of pleasure. In the observations of travellers who had recently preceded us, we had heard the Pyramids described as huge objects which gave no satisfaction to the spectator, on account of their barbarous shape, and formal appearance: yet to us it appeared hardly possible, that persons susceptible of any feeling of sublimity could behold them unmoved. With what amazement did we survey the vast surface that was presented to us, when we arrived at this stupendous monument, which seemed to reach the clouds! Here and there appeared some Arab guides upon the immense masses above us, like so many pigmies, waiting to shew the way up to the summit. Now and then we thought we heard voices, and listened; but it was the wind, in powerful gusts, sweeping the

immense ranges of stone. Already some of our party had begun the ascent, and were pausing at the tremendous depth which they saw below. One of our military companions, after having surmounted the most difficult part of the undertaking, became giddy in consequence of looking down from the elevation he had attained; and being compelled to abandon the project, he hired an Arab to assist him in effecting his descent. The rest of us, more accustomed to the business of climbing heights, with many a halt for respiration, and many an exclamation of wonder, pursued our way towards the summit. The mode of ascent has been frequently described; and yet, from the questions which are often proposed to travellers, it does not appear to be generally understood. The reader may imagine himself to be upon a staircase, every step of which, to a man of middle stature, is nearly breast high; and the breadth of each step is equal to its height; consequently, the footing is secure; and although a retrospect, in going up, be sometimes fearful to persons unaccustomed to look down from any considerable elevation, yet there is little danger of falling. In some places, indeed, where the stones are decayed, caution may be required; and an Arab guide is always necessary, to avoid a total interruption; but, upon the whole, the means of ascent are such that almost every one may accomplish it. Our progress was impeded by other causes. We carried with us a few instruments; such as, our boat-compass, a thermometer, a telescope, &c.; these could not be trusted in the hands of the Arabs, and they were liable to be broken every instant. At length we reached the topmost tier, to the great delight and satisfaction of all the party. Here we found a platform, thirty-two feet square; consisting of nine large stones, each of which might weigh about a ton; although they be much inferior in size to some of the stones used in the construction of this pyramid. Travellers of all ages, and of various nations, have here inscribed their names. Some are written in Greek; many in French; a few in Arabic; one or two in English; and others in Latin. We were as desirous as our predecessors to leave a memorial of our arrival; it seemed to be a tribute of thankfulness, due for the success

cess of our undertaking; and presently every one of our party was seen busied in adding the inscription of his name.

VIEW FROM THEIR TOP.

The view from this eminence amply fulfilled our expectations; nor do the accounts which have been given of it, as it appears at this season of the year, exaggerate the novelty and grandeur of the sight. All the region towards Cairo and the Delta resembled a sea, covered with innumerable islands. Forests of palm-trees were seen standing in the water; the inundation spreading over the land where they stood, so as to give them an appearance of growing in the flood. To the north, as far as the eye could reach, nothing could be discerned, but a watery surface thus diversified by plantations and by villages. To the south we saw the Pyramids of Saccara; and, upon the east of these, smaller monuments of the same kind, nearer to the Nile. An appearance of ruins might indeed be traced the whole way from the Pyramids of Djiza to those of Saccara; as if they had been once connected, so as to constitute one vast cœmetary. Beyond the Pyramids of Saccara we could perceive the distant mountains of the Said; and upon an eminence near the Libyan side of the Nile appeared a monastery of considerable size. Towards the west and south-west, the eye ranged over the great Libyan Desert, extending to the utmost verge of the horizon, without a single object to interrupt the dreary horror of the landscape, except dark floating spots, caused by the shadows of passing clouds upon the sand.

THEIR STONES.

The stones of the platform upon the top, as well as most of the others used in constructing the decreasing ranges from the base upwards, are of soft limestone; a little harder, and more compact, than what some of our English masons vulgarly call *clunch*; whereof King's College Chapel at Cambridge, and great part of Ely Cathedral, is built. It is of a greyish white colour; and has this remarkable property, that when broken by a smart blow with a hammer, it exhales the fetid odour common to the dark limestone of the Dead Sea, and of many other places; owing to the disengagement of a gaseous sulphureted hydrogen. This character is very uncommon in white limestone, although it may be frequently

observed in the darker varieties. It is now very generally admitted, that the stones, of which the Pyramids consist, are of the same nature as the calcareous rock whereon they stand, and that this was cut away in order to form them: Herodotus says they were brought from the Arabian side of the Nile. Another more compact variety of limestone is found in detached masses at the base of these structures, exactly as it is described by Strabo; seeming to consist entirely of mineralized *exuvia*, derived from some animal now unknown.

LABOURS OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

The French had been very assiduous in their researches among these buildings. They even attempted to open the smallest of the three principal Pyramids; and, having effected a very considerable chasm in one of its sides, have left this mark behind them, as an everlasting testimony of their curiosity and zeal. The landing of our army in Egypt put a stop to their labour. Had it not been for this circumstance, the interior of that mysterious monument would probably be now submitted to the inquiry which has long been an object among literary men.

INTERIOR OF THE LARGER PYRAMID.

Having collected our party upon a sort of platform before the entrance of the passage leading to the interior, and lighted a number of tapers, we all descended into its dark mouth. The impression made upon every one of us, in viewing the entrance, was this: that no set of men whatever could thus have opened a passage, by uncovering precisely the part of the pyramid where the entrance was concealed, unless they had been previously acquainted with its situation; and for these reasons: First, because its position is almost in the centre of one of its planes, instead of being at the base. Secondly, that not a trace appears of those dilapidations which must have been the result of any search for a passage to the interior; such as now distinguish the labours of the French upon the smaller pyramid, which they attempted to open. The persons who undertook the work, actually opened the pyramid in the only point, over all its vast surface, where, from the appearance of the stones inclined to each other above the mouth of the passage, any admission to the interior seems to have been originally intended. So marvellously concealed as this was, are we to credit the legendary

legendary story given to us from an Arabian writer, who, discoursing of the Wonders of Egypt, attributed the opening of this pyramid to *Almamon*, a Caliph of Babylon, about nine hundred and fifty years since?

Proceeding down this passage, (which may be compared to a chimney about a yard wide, inclined, as Greaves affirms, by an angle of twenty-six degrees to the platform at the entrance,) we presently arrived at a very large mass of granite; this seems placed on purpose to choke up the passage; but a way has been made round it, by which we were enabled to ascend into a second channel, sloping, in a contrary direction towards the mouth of the first. This is what Greaves calls the *first gallery*; and his description is so exceedingly minute, both as to the admeasurements and other circumstances belonging to these channels, that it were a useless waste of the reader's time to repeat them here. Having ascended along this channel, to the distance of one hundred and ten feet, we came to a horizontal passage, leading to a chamber with an angular roof, in the interior of the pyramid. In this passage we found, upon our right hand, the mysterious well, which has been so often mentioned. Pliny makes the depth of it equal to one hundred and twenty-nine feet; but Greaves, in sounding it with a line, found the plummet rest at the depth of twenty feet.

We threw down some stones, and observed that they rested at about the depth which Greaves has mentioned; but being at length provided with a stone nearly as large as the mouth of the well, and about fifty pounds in weight, we let this fall, listening attentively to the result from the spot where the other stones rested: we were agreeably surprised by hearing, after a length of time which must have equalled some seconds, a loud and distinct report, seeming to come from a spacious subterraneous apartment, accompanied by a splashing noise, as if the stone had been broken into pieces, and had fallen into a reservoir of water at an amazing depth. Thus does experience always tend to confirm the accounts left us by the Antients; for this exactly answers to the description given by Pliny of this well.

CHAMBER OF THE SEPULCHRE.

After once more regaining the passage—
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sage whence these ducts diverge, we examined the chamber at the end of it, mentioned by all who have described the interior of this building. Its roof is angular; that is to say, it is formed by the inclination of large masses of stone leaning towards each other, like the appearance presented by those masses which are above the entrance to the pyramid. Then quitting the passage altogether, we climbed the slippery and difficult ascent which leads to what is called the principal chamber. The workmanship, from its perfection, and its immense proportions, is truly astonishing. All about the spectator, as he proceeds, is full of majesty, and mystery, and wonder. Presently we entered that "glorious room," as it is justly called by Greaves, where, "as within some consecrated oratory, Art may seem to have contended with Nature." It stands "in the very heart and centre of the pyramid, equidistant from all its sides, and almost in the midst between the basis and the top. The floor, the sides, the roof of it, are all made of vast and exquisite tables of Thebaick marble." It is often called *Oriental granite*, and sometimes *Egyptian granite*, but it differs in no respect from European granite, except that the red feldspar enters more largely as a constituent into the mass than is usual in the granite of Europe. So exquisitely are the masses of this granite fitted to each other upon the sides of this chamber, that, having no cement between them, it is really impossible to force the blade of a knife within the joints. This has been often related before; but we actually tried the experiment, and found it to be true. There are only six ranges of stone from the floor to the roof, which is twenty feet high; and the length of the chamber is about twelve yards. It is also about six yards wide. The roof or ceiling consists only of nine pieces, of stupendous size and length, traversing the room from side to side, and lying, like enormous beams, across the top.

REFLECTIONS.

It is impossible to leave the Pyramids of Djiza without some notice of the long list of Philosophers, Marshals, Emperors, and Princes, who, in so many ages, have been brought to view the most wonderful of the works of man. There has not been a conqueror pre-eminently distinguished in the history

tory of the world, from the days of Cambyzes down to the invasion of Napoleon Bonaparte, who withheld the tribute of his admiration from the genius of the place. The vanity of Alexander the Great was so piqued by the overwhelming impression of their majesty, that nothing less than being ranked among the Gods of Egypt could elevate him sufficiently above the pride of the monarchs by whom they were erected. When Germanicus had subdued the Egyptian empire, and seated "a Roman præfect upon the splendid throne of the Ptolemies," being unmindful of repose or of triumph, the antiquities of the country engaged all his attention. The humblest pilgrim, pacing the Libyan sands around them, while he is conscious that he walks in the footsteps of so many mighty and renowned men, imagines himself to be for an instant admitted into their illustrious conclave. Persian satraps, Macedonian heroes, Grecian bards, sages, and historians, Roman warriors, all of every age, nation, and religion, have participated, in common with him, the same feelings, and have trodden the same ground. Every spot that he beholds, every stone on which he rests his weary limbs, have witnessed the coming of men who were the fathers of law, of literature, and of the arts. Orpheus, Musæus, Homer, Lycurgus, Solon, Pythagoras, Plato, Plutarch, contributed by their presence to the dignity of the place. Desolate and melancholy as the scene appears, no traveller leaves it without regret, and many a retrospect of objects which call to his mind such numerous examples of wisdom, of bravery, and of virtue.

MODERN ISRAELITE PYRAMID.

Four miles to the south of Saccâra stands a pyramid built of unburned bricks. This is in a very mouldering state. The bricks contain shells, gravel, and chopped straw; they are of the same nature as the unburned bricks in modern use in Egypt. Pococke concluded, from its present appearance, that this pyramid was built with five gradations only. It is of the same height as the other graduated pyramid of six degrees.

HORSES OF THE COUNTRY.

The horses of our Arab guard were the finest we had ever seen; not even excepting those of Circassia. In choosing their steeds the Arabs prefer mares; the Turks give the preference

to stallions. The Mamalukes and Bedouin Arabs are perhaps better mounted than any people upon earth; and the Arab grooms were considered, by many of our officers, as superior to those of our own country. These grooms affirm that their horses never lie down, but sleep standing, when they are fastened by one leg to a post; and that the saddle is never taken off, except for cleaning the animal.

PROSPECT ON THE NILE.

As we left Bulac we had one of the finest prospects in the world, presented by the wide surface of the Nile crowded with vessels, the whole city of Cairo, the busy throng of shipping at the quay, the citadel and heights of Mokatam, the distant Said, the Pyramids of Djiza and Saccara, the Obelisk of Heliopolis, and the Tombs of the Sultans; all these were in view at the same time; the greater objects being tinged with the most brilliant effect of light it is possible to conceive; while the noise of the waters, the shouts of the boatmen, and the moving picture every where offered by the Nile, gave a cheerful contrast to the stillness of the Desert, and the steadfast majesty of monuments, beautifully described by a classic bard as "looking tranquillity."

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF THE RIVER.

The only result we have been able to obtain, from the most careful chemical analysis of the Nile water, proves it to contain the carbonates of magnesia, lime, and iron, the muriat of soda, and a small portion of silex and alumine. But it is one of the purest waters known; remarkable for its easy digestion by the stomach, and for its salutary qualities in all the uses to which it is applied. The mud or slime left by this water is found to consist principally of alumine, in a state of great purity; it contains nearly half its weight of this substance; the rest is carbonate of lime, water, carbon, iron oxide, silex, and carbonate of magnesia. The persons concerned in agriculture in Egypt regard it as a sufficient manure, without any addition of dung; this they reserve for other purposes, and principally for fuel.

Ovens for Hatching Chickens.

We were conducted to one of the principal buildings constructed for this purpose; and entered by a narrow passage, on each side of which were two rows of chambers, in two tiers,

tiers, one above the other, with cylindrical holes, as passages, from the lower to the upper tier. The floor of the upper tier is grated and covered with mats, on which is laid camel's dung; somewhat resembling the manner of placing hops, for drying, in English oast-houses. We counted twenty chambers, and in each chamber had been placed three thousand eggs; so that the aggregate of the eggs then hatching amounted to the astonishing number of sixty thousand. Of these above half are destroyed in the process. The time of hatching continues from autumn until spring. At first all the eggs are put in the lower tier. The most important part of the business consists, of course, in a precise attention to the requisite temperature: this we would willingly have ascertained by the thermometer, but could not adjust it to the nice test adopted by the Arab superintendant of the ovens. His manner of ascertaining it is very curious. Having closed one of his eyes he applies an egg to the outside of his eyelid; and if the heat be not great enough to cause any uneasy sensation, all is safe; but if he cannot bear the heat of the egg thus applied to his eye, the temperature of the ovens must be quickly diminished, or the whole batch will be destroyed. During the first eight days of hatching the eggs are kept carefully turned. At the end of that time the culling begins. Every egg is then examined, being held between a lamp and the eye; and thus the good are distinguished from the bad, which are cast away. Two days after this culling the fire is extinguished; then half the eggs upon the lower are conveyed to the upper tier, through the cylindrical passages in the floor; and the ovens are closed. In about ten days more, and sometimes twelve, the chickens are hatched. At this time a very singular ceremony ensues. An Arab enters the ovens, stooping and treading upon stones placed so that he may walk among the eggs without injuring them, and begins clucking like a hen; continuing this curious mimicry until the whole are disclosed. We heard this noise, and were equally surprised and amused by the singular adroitness of the imitation. The chickens thus hatched are then sold to persons employed in rearing them. Many are strangely deformed; and great numbers die, not only in rearing, but even during the

sale; for, to add to the extraordinary nature of the whole undertaking, the proprietors of these ovens do not give themselves the trouble of counting the live chickens, in order to sell them by number, but dispose of them, as we should say, by the gallon; heaping them into a measure containing a certain quantity, for which they ask the low price of a parah, rather more than a farthing of our money.

INTERVIEW WITH MENOÛ.

In the forenoon of this day the author waited upon General Menou, requesting a passport, that might enable him to pass and repass the outer gate, to and from the British camp; and at the same time made application for permission to copy the inscriptions upon the Rosetta Tablet, which was still carefully concealed. One of the aide-camps conducted him into a small tent, pitched in a spacious area or square near the inner gates of Alexandria, where the parade of the garrison was daily held. This tent, small as it was, had been separated into two parts by a curtain, behind which Menou had his Charem; giving audience in the outer part, near to the entrance, where there was hardly room enough to stand upright. Having waited some time, during which women's voices were heard in conversation behind the partition, the curtain was suddenly raised, and Jaques Abd'allah made his appearance. A more grotesque figure can hardly be conceived. He wore a flowered embroidered waistcoat, with flaps almost to his knees, and a coat covered with broad lace. Elevating his whiskered face and double chin, in order to give all imaginable pomp and dignity to his squat corpulent figure, which, covered with finery, much resembled that of a mountebank, he demanded, in an imperious tone of voice, "*Que souhaitez-il, Monsieur Clarke?*" Having explained the cause of the visit, as far as it related to the passport, and being directed to apply for this to Rene, general of brigade, the author ventured to introduce the subject of the Rosetta Stone; stating that he was about to return to Lord Hutchinson, and wished to obey the orders he had received from his lordship for copying the inscription. At the very mention of this stone Menou gave vent to his rage; and, ready to burst with choler, exclaimed, "You may tell your commander-in-chief he has as much right to make this demand

as a highwayman has to ask for my purse! He has a cannon in each of my ears, and another in my mouth: let him take what pleases him. I have a few embroidered saddles, and a tolerable stock of shirts, perhaps he may fancy some of these!" The author assured him that he could be the bearer of no message of this kind; but whatever he might think proper to put in writing should be carefully conveyed, and as punctually delivered.

ACQUISITION OF ANTIQUITIES.

Saturday, September 12. This day the flesh of horses, asses, and camels, sold in the market at a price nearly equivalent to half a guinea of our money, for a single rotola, equal to about a pound and a quarter. Mr. Hamilton went with us to the French headquarters, and undertook to mention to Menou the result of our visit to Lord Hutchinson. We remained near the outside of the tent; and soon heard the French general's voice, elevated as usual, and in strong terms of indignation remonstrating against the injustice of the demands made upon him. The words "*Jamais on n'a pillé le monde!*" diverted us highly, as coming from a leader of plunder and devastation. He threatened to publish an account of the transaction in all the gazettes of Europe; and, as Mr. Hamilton withdrew, we heard him vociferate a menace of meeting Lord Hutchinson in single combat—" *Nous nous verrons, de bien près—de bien près, je vous assure!*" However Colonel (now General) Turner, who had arrived also in Alexandria, with orders from our commander-in-chief respecting the surrender of the Antiquities, soon brought this matter to a conclusion. The different forts were now occupied by our army; and the condition of the garrison was such that Menou did not deem it prudent to resist any longer; he reluctantly submitted to the loss of his literary trophies. The Rosetta Tablet was taken from a warehouse, covered with mats, where it had been deposited with Menou's baggage; and it was surrendered to us by a French officer and Member of the Institute, in the streets of Alexandria; Mr. Cripps, Mr. Hamilton, and the author, being the only persons present to take possession of it.

DESCENT INTO THE CRYPTÆ.

We will detain the reader no longer with such observations; but proceed to a survey of the surprising repositories that have given rise to them, and

which received among the antients the appropriate appellation of the "City of the Dead." Nothing so marvellous ever fell within our observation; but in Upper Egypt, perhaps, works of a similar nature may have been found. The Cryptæ of Jerusalem, Tortosa, Jebilee, Laodicea, and Telmusses, are excavations of the same kind, but far less extensive. They enable us, however, to trace the connection which anciently existed in the sepulchral customs of all the nations bordering the eastern coast of the Mediterranean; from the shores of Carthage and of Cyrene, to Egypt, to Palastine, to Phœnicia, and to Asia Minor. An inclination common to man in every period of his history, but particularly in the patriarchal ages, of being finally "gathered unto his fathers," may explain the prodigious labour bestowed in the construction of these primeval sepulchres. Wheresoever the roving Phœnicians extended their colonies, whether to the remotest parts of Africa, or of Europe, even to the most distant islands of their descendants the Celtæ in the Northern Ocean, the same rigid and religious adherence to this early practice may yet be noticed.

The Alexandrian guides to the Catcombs will not be persuaded to enter them without using the precaution of a clue of thread, in order to secure their retreat. We were therefore provided with a ball of twine to answer this purpose; and also with a quantity of wax tapers, to light us in our passage through these dark chambers. They are situated about half a league along the shore, to the westward of the present city. The whole coast exhibits the remains of other sepulchres, that have been violated, and are now in ruins. The name of Cleopatra's Bath has been given to an artificial reservoir, into which the sea has now access; but for what reason it has been so called cannot be ascertained; it is a basin hewn out of the rock; and if it ever was intended for a bath, it was in all probability a place where they washed the bodies of the dead before they were embalmed. Shaw maintained that the Cryptæ of Necropolis were not intended for the reception of mummies, or embalmed bodies: in which he is decidedly contradicted by the text of Strabo. Perhaps he was one of those who had been induced to adopt an erroneous opinion that mummies

mies were placed upright upon their feet in Egyptian sepulchres, and therefore was at a loss to reconcile the horizontal position of the Thecæ with his preconceived notions. We shall presently have very satisfactory evidence as to the manner in which embalmed bodies were laid when deposited within these tombs by the inhabitants of Egypt, before the foundation of Alexandria. The original entrance to them is now closed, and it is externally concealed from observation. The only place whereby admittance to the interior is practicable may be found facing the sea, near an angle towards the north: it is a small aperture made through the soft and sandy rock, either by burrowing animals, or by men for the purpose of ransacking the cemetery. This aperture is barely large enough to admit a person upon his hands and knees. Here it is not unusual to encounter jackals, escaping from the interior, when alarmed by any person approaching: on this account the guides recommend the practice of discharging a gun, or pistol, to prevent any sally of this kind. Having passed this aperture with lighted tapers, we arrived, by a gradual descent, in a square chamber, almost filled with earth: to the right and left of this are smaller apartments, chisselled in the rock; each of these contains on either side of it, except that of the entrance, a Soros for the reception of a mummy; but, owing to the accumulation of sand in all of them, this part of the Catacombs cannot be examined without great difficulty. Leaving the first chamber, we found a second of still larger dimensions, having four Cryptæ with Soroi, two on either side, and a fifth at its extremity towards the south-east. From hence, penetrating towards the west, we passed through another forced aperture, which conducted us into a square chamber without any receptacles for dead bodies; thence, pursuing a south-western course, we persevered in effecting a passage, over heaps of sand, from one chamber to another, admiring everywhere the same extraordinary effects of labour and ingenuity, until we found ourselves bewildered with so many passages that our clue of thread became of more importance than we at first believed it would prove to be. At last we reached the stately antichamber of the principal sepulchre, which had every appearance of being

intended for a regal repository. It was of a circular form, surmounted by a beautiful dome, hewn out of the rock, with exquisite perfection, and the purest simplicity of workmanship. In a few of the chambers we observed pilasters, resembling, in their style of architecture, the Doric, with architraves, as in some of the most ancient sepulchres near Jerusalem; but they were all integral parts of the solid rock. The dome covering the circular chamber was without ornament; the entrance to it being from the north-west. Opposite to this entrance was a handsome square Crypt with three Soroi; and to the right and left were other Cryptæ, similarly surrounded with places for the dead. Hereabouts we observed the remarkable symbol, sculptured in relief, of an Orb with extended wings.

It is to this hieroglyphical sign that allusion was before made; for this seems evidently to represent the subterraneous Sun, or Sol Interus, as mentioned by Macrobius, and if the latter be Serapis, as it is maintained to be by Jablonski, we have almost a proof that the circular shrine was the ancient Serapeum of Racotis, alluded to by Tacitus. All the rest of the history of these Catacombs seems to be involved in darkness, impervious as that which pervades every avenue of the excavated chambers. We endeavoured to penetrate farther towards the south-west and south, and found that another complete wing of the vast fabric extended in those directions, but the labour of the research was excessive. The cryptæ upon the south-west side corresponded with those which we have described towards the north-east. In the middle between the two, a long range of chambers extended from the central and circular shrine towards the north-west; and in this direction appears to have been the principal and original entrance. Proceeding towards it we came to a large room in the middle of the fabric, between the supposed Serapeum and the main outlet, or portal, towards the sea. Here the workmanship was very elaborate; and to the right and left were chambers, with receptacles ranged parallel to each other. Farther on, in the same direction, is a passage with galleries and spacious apartments on either side; perhaps the ΚΑΤΑΓΩΓΑΙ mentioned by Strabo for embalming the dead; or the chambers belonging to the

the priests, who constantly officiated in the Serapeum. In the front is a kind of vestibulum, or porch: but it is exceedingly difficult to ascertain precisely the nature of the excavation towards the main entrance, from the manner in which it is now choked with earth and rubbish. If this part were laid open it is possible that something further would be known as to the design of the undertaking; and, at all events, one of the most curious of the antiquities of Egypt would then be exposed to the investigation it merits. Having passed about six hours in exploring, to the best of our ability, these gloomy mansions, we regained, by means of our clue, the aperture by which we had entered, and quitted them for ever.

DATE TREES.

The whole of this tract is a desert, interspersed here and there with a few plantations of palm-trees. The dates hung from these trees in such large and tempting clusters, although not quite ripe, that we climbed to the tops of some of them, and carried away with us large branches, with their fruit. In this manner dates are sometimes sent, with the branches, as presents to Constantinople. A ripe Egyptian date, although a delicious fruit, is never refreshing to the palate. It suits the Turks, who are fond of sweetmeats of all kinds: and its flavour is not unlike that of the conserved green citron which is brought from Madeira. The largest plantation occurred about half-way between Alexandria and Aboukir, whence our army marched to attack the French on the 13th of March; the trees here were very lofty, and, from the singular formation of their bark, we found it as easy to ascend to the tops of these trees as to climb the steps of a ladder. Wherever the date-tree is found in these dreary deserts, it not only presents a supply of salutary food for men and camels, but Nature has so wonderfully contrived the plant that its first offering is accessible to man alone; and the mere circumstance of its presence, in all seasons of the year, is a never-failing indication of fresh water near its roots. Botanists describe the trunk of the date-tree as full of rugged knots; but the fact is that it is full of cavities, the vestiges of its decayed leaves, which have within them an horizontal surface, flat and even, exactly adapted to the reception of the human feet and hands; and

it is impossible to view them without believing that HE, who in the beginning fashioned "every tree, in the which is the fruit of a tree yielding seed" as "meat for man," has here manifested one among the innumerable proofs of his beneficent design. The extensive importance of the date-tree is one of the most curious subjects to which a traveller can direct his attention. A considerable part of the inhabitants of Egypt, of Arabia, and Persia, subsist almost entirely upon its fruit. They boast also of its medicinal virtues. Their camels feed upon the date-stones. From the leaves they make couches, baskets, bags, mats, and brushes; from the branches, cages for their poultry, and fences for their gardens; from the fibres of the boughs, thread, ropes, and rigging; from the sap is prepared a spirituous liquor; and the body of the tree furnishes fuel; it is even said that from one variety of the palm-tree, the *Phœnix farinifera*, meal has been extracted, which is found among the fibres of the trunk, and has been used for food.

MONASTERY OF ST. JOHN, PATMOS.

When we arrived at the monastery we were quite struck by its size and substantial appearance. It is a very powerful fortress, built upon a steep rock, with several towers and lofty thick walls; and, if duly mounted with guns, might be made impregnable.

THE LIBRARY AT PATMOS.

We entered a small oblong chamber having a vaulted stone roof, and found it to be nearly filled with books, of all sizes, in a most neglected state; some lying upon the floor, a prey to the damp and to worms; others standing upon shelves, but without any kind of order. The books upon the shelves were all printed volumes; for these, being more modern, were regarded as the more valuable, and had a better station assigned them than the rest, many of which were considered only as so much rubbish. Some of the printed books were tolerably well bound, and in good condition. The superior said they were his favourites; but when we took down one or two of them to examine their contents, we discovered that neither the superior nor his colleague were able to read. They had a confused traditionary recollection of the names of some of them, but knew no more of their contents than the Grand Signior. We saw here the first edition of the *Anthologia*,

logia, in quarto, printed at Florence, in capital letters, A.D. MCCCCXCIV. a beautiful copy. At the extremity of this chamber, which is opposite to the window, a considerable number of old volumes of parchment, some with covers and some without, were heaped upon the floor in the utmost disorder; and there were evident proofs that these had been cast aside, and condemned to answer any purpose for which the parchment might be required. When we asked the Superior what they were? he replied, turning up his nose with an expression of indifference and contempt, *Χειρογραφα!* It was indeed a moment in which a literary traveller might be supposed to doubt the evidence of his senses, for the whole of this condemned heap consisted entirely of Greek manuscripts, and some of them were of the highest antiquity. We sought in vain for the Manuscript of Homer, said to have been copied by a student from Cos, and alluded to upon a former occasion. We even ventured to ask the ignorant monks, if they had ever heard of the existence of such a relique in their library. The Bursar maintained that he had, and that he should know the Manuscript if he saw it. Presently he produced from the heap, the volume he pretended to recognise: it was a copy of the Poems of Gregory of Nazianzen, written upon vellum, evidently as old as the ninth century. The cover and some of the outer leaves had been torn off; but the rest was perfect. The ink had become red; a circumstance alluded to by Montfaucon in ascertaining the age of Greek Manuscripts; and the writing throughout manifested an equal degree of antiquity. What was to be done? To betray an extraordinary desire to get possession of these treasures would inevitably prevent all possibility of obtaining any of them. We referred the matter to Mr. Riley, as to a person habituated in dealing with knavish Greeks; and presently such a jabbering took place, accompanied with so many significant shrugs, winks, nods, and grimaces, that it was plain something like a negotiation was going on. The author, meanwhile, continued to inspect the heap; and had soon selected the fairest specimen of Grecian calligraphy which has descended to modern times. It was a copy of the twenty-four first Dialogues of Plato,

written throughout upon vellum, in the same exquisite character, concluding with a date, and the name of the calligraphist. The whole of this could not be ascertained at the instant. It was a single volume in folio, bound in wood. The cover was full of worms, and falling to pieces; a paper label appeared at the back, inscribed, in a modern hand, *Διαλογοὶ Σωκράτους*; but the letters of *Plato's* name, separated by stars, appeared very distinctly as a head-piece to the first page of the Manuscript. In this manner:

Π * Α * Α * Τ * Ω * Ν * Ο * C

A postscript at the end of the volume stated that the Manuscript had been "*written by John the Calligraphist, for Arethas, Dean of Patrae, in the month of November 896, the 14. year of the Indiction, and 6404. year of the world, in the reign of Leo son of Basilus, for the sum of thirteen Byzantine Nummi,*" about eight guineas of our money. The Manuscript mentioned by Dorville on Chariton is one year older.

The author afterwards discovered a LEXICON OF ST. CYRILL of Alexandria, written upon paper, without any date, and contained in a volume of Miscellanies. He also found two small volumes of the PSALMS and of GREEK HYMNS, accompanied by unknown characters, serving as *antient Greek musical notes*. They are the same which the Abbé Barthelemy and other writers have noticed; but their history has never been illustrated. Besides these, he observed, in a Manuscript of very diminutive size; the curious work of PHILE upon Animals, containing an account of the *Ibis*, bound up with twenty-three other Tracts upon a great variety of subjects. After removing these volumes from a quantity of theological writings, detached fragments, worm-eaten wooden covers (that had belonged to books once literally bound in boards), scraps of parchment, Lives of Hermits, and other litter, all further inquiry was stopped by the promptitude and caution of Mr. Riley, who told us the Superior had agreed to sell the few articles we had selected, but that it would be impossible to purchase more; and that even these would be lost, if we ventured to expose them to the observation of any of the inhabitants of the town.

After this, some keys were produced, belonging to an old chest that stood opposite to the door of the Library; and

and we were shewn a few antiquities which the monks had been taught to consider as valuable. Among these, the first thing they shewed to us was AN ORIGINAL LETTER FROM THE EMPEROR ALEXIUS COMNENUS, concerning the establishment of their Monastery, inscribed upon a large roll, and precisely corresponding, in the style of the manuscript, with the fragment preserved by Montfaucon in his *Palæographia*. Besides this were other rolls of record, the deeds of succeeding Emperors, with their seals affixed, relating to the affairs of the Convent. We calculated the number of volumes in the Library to be about a thousand; and of this number above two hundred were in manuscript. After we had left the Library, we saw upon a shelf in the Refectory the most splendid Manuscript of the whole collection, in two folio volumes, richly adorned; it was called the THEOLOGY OF GREGORY OF NAZIANZEN, and purported to be throughout IN THE HAND-WRITING OF THE EMPEROR ALEXIUS. Nothing could be more beautiful. As a singular circumstance, it may also be mentioned, that we saw upon the same shelf, and by the side of this, a Manuscript of the writings of Gregory's greatest admirer, ERASMUS.

GROTTO OF ANTIPAROS.

Having reached the top of the mountain, we came to the mouth of this most prodigious cavern, which may be described as the greatest natural curiosity of its kind in the known world. As to its origin, it may possibly have been a very ancient mine, or a marble quarry, from the oblique direction of the cavity, and the parallel inclination of its sides. The rock immediately above it consists of the following substances. The upper surface or summit of the mountain is a stratum of limestone, inclined very considerably from the horizon: beneath is a layer of schistus, containing the sort of marble called *Cipolino*, that is to say, a mixture of schistus and marble: then occurs the cavity which forms the grotto, parallel to the dipping inclination of the superior strata, and this cavity, was once probably occupied by a bed of marble, succeeding in regular order to the superincumbent schistus; but this is mere hypothesis; and any traveller who enters the grotto will soon perceive, that all the theories he may form have been set at nought by Nature, in the

darksome wonders of her subterraneous laboratory. We may therefore come at once to the practical part of the inquiry. The mode of descent is by ropes, which on the different declivities are either held by the natives, or they are joined to a cable which is fastened at the entrance around a stalactite pillar. In this manner, we were conducted, first down one declivity, and then down another, until we entered the spacious chambers of this truly enchanted grotto. Having visited the stalactite caverns of the gulph of *Salernum* upon the coast of Italy, those of *Terni*, and many other places, the author expected to find something similar here; but there is nothing which resembles this grotto. The roof, the floor, the sides of a whole series of magnificent caverns, were entirely invested with a dazzling incrustation as white as snow. Columns, some of which were five and twenty feet in length, pended in fine icicle forms above our heads: fortunately some of them are so far above the reach of the numerous travellers, who, during many ages, have visited this place, that no one has been able to injure or to remove them. Others extended from the roof to the floor, with diameters equal to that of the mast of a first-rate ship of the line. The incrustations of the floor, caused by falling drops from the stalactites above, had grown up into dendritic and vegetable forms, which first suggested to Tournefort the strange notion of his having here discovered the vegetation of stones. Vegetation itself has been considered as a species of crystallization; and, as the process of crystallization is so surprisingly manifested by several phenomena in this grotto, some analogy may perhaps be allowed to exist between the plant and the stone; but it cannot be said that a principle of life existing in the former has been imparted to the latter. The last chamber into which we descended surprised us more by the grandeur of its exhibition than any other; and this seems to have been the same which Tournefort intended to represent by the wretched view of it given in his work. Probably there are many other chambers below this, yet unexplored, for no attempt has been made to penetrate farther: and, if this be true, the new caverns, when opened, would appear in perfect splendor, unsullied, in any part of them, by the smoke

smoke of torches, or by the hands of intruders.

CHARACTER OF THE RUSSIANS.

The ravages committed by the Russians, when their fleet visited Zia during the reign of Catharine the Second, were even yet the subject of conversation. The inhabitants told us that their houses were entirely stripped by them. The specious promises which they held out to the people of Greece are now seen in their true light by that people, and they will not again become the dupes of any Scythian treaty. Sonnini says they had rendered the very name of *Liberty* so odious at Paros, that the inhabitants would hear no proposals for their deliverance from the power of the Turks; they preferred *Turkish despotism* to *Russian emancipation*. "Armed," says he, "in appearance for the purpose of restoring to the Greeks their antient liberty, they (*the Russians*) became their scourge." Surely the examples of national perfidy they have afforded will not be lost upon the Cabinets of Europe. It was not the property of the natives alone which suffered upon this occasion: the Russians removed or destroyed the most valuable antiquities; which could not have been more effectually sacrificed if they had perished, with the plunder of the Parthenon, among the rocks of Cythera. The Fine Arts, who always deprecate their coming as they would another invasion of Alaric, will remember with regret the days they passed in the Archipelago: and, when truth prevails over the interests of political intrigue and the prejudices of party zeal, it will be seen that an author has not erred who thus described them: RVSSI INTER CHRISTIANOS BARBAPOTATOI.

BEAUTY OF GRECIAN SCENERY.

We passed *Macronisi*, once called *HELENA*, because *Helén* is said to have landed here after her expulsion from Troy; and we had such a glorious prospect of this island, and of the temple of *Minerva Sunias* standing upon the Cape, together with other more distant objects, that we could recollect nothing like it: such a contrast of colours; such an association of the wonders of Nature and of Art; such perfection of grand and beautiful perspective, as no expression of perceptible properties can convey to the minds of those who have not beheld the objects themselves. Being well aware of the transitory nature of impressions made upon the memory by

sights of this kind, the author wrote a description of this scene while it was actually before his eyes: but how poor is the effect produced by detailing the parts of a view in a narrative, which ought to strike as a whole upon the sense! He may tell indeed of the dark blue sea streaked with hues of deepest purple—of embrowning shadows—of lights effulgent as the sun—of marble pillars beaming a radiant brightness upon lofty precipices whose sides are diversified by refreshing verdure and by hoary mosses, and by gloomy and naked rocks; or by brighter surfaces reflecting the most vivid and varied tints, orange, red, and grey: to these he may add an account of distant summits, more intensely azured than the clear and cloudless sky—of island dimly seen through silvery mists upon the wide expanse of water shining, towards the horizon, as it were "a sea of glass:"—and when he has exhausted his vocabulary, of every colour and shape exhibited by the face of Nature or by the works of Art, although he have not deviated from the truth in any part of his description, how little and how ineffectual has been the result of his undertaking!

FIRST SIGHT OF ATHENS.

At four o'clock in the afternoon, being off Cape *Vari*, and upon the look-out towards the N. N. E. we beheld, with great transports of joy, the first sight of *ATHENS*; its lofty edifices catching the sun's rays, and rendering the buildings in the Acropolis visible to us at the distance of fifteen miles. The reflected light gave them a white appearance. The *PARTHENON* appeared first, above a long chain of hills in the front; presently we saw the top of *MOUNT ANCHESMUS*, to the left of the temple; the whole being backed by a lofty mountainous ridge, which we supposed to be *PARNES*.

APPROACH TO ATHENS.

As we drew near to the walls, we beheld the vast *CECROPIAN CITADEL*, crowned with temples that originated in the veneration once paid to the memory of the illustrious dead, surrounded by objects telling the same theme of sepulchral grandeur, and now monuments of departed greatness, mouldering in all the solemnity of ruin. So paramount is this funereal character in the approach to Athens from the *Piræus*, that, as we passed the hill of the *Muséum*, which was in fact an antient cemetery of the Athenians, we might have imagined ourselves to be among the tombs

of Telmessus, from the number of the sepulchres hewn in the rock, and from the antiquity of the workmanship, evidently not of later date than any thing of the kind in Asia Minor. In other respects the city exhibits nearly the appearance so briefly described by Strabo eighteen centuries before our coming; and perhaps it wears a more magnificent aspect, owing to the splendid remains of Hadrian's Temple of Olympian Jove, which did not exist when Athens was visited by the disciple of Xenarchus. The prodigious columns belonging to this temple appeared full in view between the Citadel and the bed of the Ilissus: high upon our left rose the Acropolis, in the most impressive grandeur: an advanced part of the rock upon the western side of it is the Hill of the *Arsenopagus*, where St. Paul preached to the Athenians, and where their most solemn tribunal was held. Beyond all, appeared the beautiful Plain of Athens, bounded by *Mount Hymettus*. We rode towards the craggy rock of the Citadel, passing some tiers of circular arches at the foot of it; these are the remains of the *Odéum* of Herodes Atticus, built in memory of his wife Regilla. Thence continuing to skirt the base of the Acropolis, the road winding rather towards the north, we saw also, upon our left, scooped in the solid rock, the circular sweep on which the Athenians were wont to assemble to hear the plays of *Æschylus*, and where the Theatre of Bacchus was afterwards constructed.

SPOILIATION OF THE TEMPLES.

Some workmen, employed under *Lusieri's* direction for the *British Ambassador*, were then engaged in making preparation, by means of ropes and pulleys, for taking down the *metopes*, where the sculpture remained the most perfect. The *Disdar* himself came to view the work, but with evident marks of dissatisfaction; and *Lusieri* told us that it was with great difficulty he could accomplish this part of his undertaking, from the attachment the Turks entertained towards a building which they had been accustomed to regard with religious veneration, and had converted into a mosque. We confessed that we participated the Mahometan feeling in this instance, and would gladly see an order enforced to preserve rather than to destroy such a glorious edifice. After a short time spent in examining the several parts of the temple, one of the workmen came to inform *Don Battista* that they were then going

to lower one of the *metopes*. We saw this fine piece of sculpture raised from its station between the *triglyphs*: but the workmen endeavouring to give it a position adapted to the projected line of descent, a part of the adjoining masonry was loosened by the machinery; and down came the fine masses of Pentelican marble, scattering their white fragments with thundering noise among the ruins. The *Disdar*, seeing this, could no longer restrain his emotions; but actually took his pipe from his mouth, and, letting fall a tear, said in a most emphatical tone of voice, "Τέλος!" positively declaring that nothing should induce him to consent to any further dilapidation of the building. Looking up, we saw with regret the gap that had been made; which all the ambassadors of the earth, with all the sovereigns they represent, aided by every resource that wealth and talent can now bestow, will never again repair.

POPULATION AND TRADE OF ATHENS.

The population of Athens amounts to fifteen thousand, including women and children. The principal exports are honey and oil: of the latter they send away about five vessels freighted annually. Small craft, from different parts of the Archipelago, occasionally visit the *Piræus* and the neighbouring coast, for wood. The shops maintain an insignificant traffic in furs and cloth. The best blue cloth in Athens was of bad German manufacture, selling under the name of English. Indeed, in almost all the towns of Europe, when any thing is offered for sale of better manufacture than usual, it is either *English*, or said to be *English*, in order to enhance its price.

Among the few articles of Athenian cutlery to be met with in the market, we found some small knives and forks, with white bone handles, inscribed with mottoes in modern Greek, characteristic of the manner and sentiments of the people; such, for example as the following: *Πίζα πάντων των κακών ἰστίη ἡ φιλαργυρία*, "The love of money is the root of all evils." *Μηδὲν ἀταφροῦν*, "You should despise no one." For the rest, nothing can be more wretchedly supplied than Athens with the most common articles of use or convenience. The artists employed for the *British Ambassador* were under the necessity of sending to *Smyrna* to obtain a wheeled cart for moving the marbles to the *Piræus*, and for all the materials and implements wanted in preparing proper

cases to contain them. No ladders could be found, nor any instruments proper for making them. It was not possible to procure the most ordinary domestic utensils, nor a single article of curriery.

PANORAMA OF ATHENS.

We proceeded toward the east, to ascend MOUNT ANCHESMUS, and to enjoy in one *panoramic* survey the glorious prospect presented from its summit, of all the antiquities and natural beauties in the Athenian Plain.—We ascended to the commanding eminence of the mount, once occupied by a *temple of Anchesmian Jupiter*. The Pagan shrine has, as usual, been succeeded by a small Christian sanctuary: it is dedicated to St. George. Of the view from this rock, even Wheler could not write without emotion. "Here," said he, "a *Democritus* might sit and laugh at the pomps and vanities of the world, whose glories so soon vanish; or an *Heraclitus* weep over its manifold misfortunes, telling sad stories of the various changes and events of Fate." The prospect embraces every object, excepting only those upon the south-west side of the Castle.—The situation of the observer is north-east of the city; and the reader may suppose him to be looking, in a contrary direction, towards the Acropolis; which is in the centre of this fine picture; thence, regarding the whole circuit of the Citadel, from its north-western side, toward the south and east, the different parts of it occur in the following order; although, to a spectator, they all appear to be comprehended in one view.

Central Object.—The lofty rocks of the Acropolis, crowned with its majestic temples, the *Parthenon*, *Erectheum*, &c.

Fore Ground.—The whole of the modern City of Athens, with its gardens, ruins, mosques, and walls, spreading into the plain beneath the Citadel. The procession for an Albanian wedding, with music, &c. was at this time passing out of one of the gates.

Right, or North-Western Wing.—The Temple of Theseus.

Left, or South Eastern Wing.—The Temple of Jupiter Olympius.

View beyond the Citadel, proceeding from West, to South and East.—1. Areopagus. 2. Pnyx. 3. Ilissus. 4. Site of the Temple of Ceres in *Agræ*, and Fountain Callirhoë. 5. Stadium Panathenæum, Site of the Lyceum, &c.

Parallel Circuit, with a more extended radius.—1. Hills and Defile of Daphne,

or *Via Sacra*. 2. Piræus. 3. Munychia and Phalerum. 4. Salamis. 5. Ægina. 6. More distant isles. 7. Hy-mettus.

Ditto, still more extended.—1. Parnes. 2. Mountains beyond Eleusis and Megara. 3. Acropolis of Corinth. 4. Mountains of Peloponnesus. 5. The Ægean and distant Islands.

Immediately beneath the Eye. 1. Plain of Athens, with Albanians engaged in agriculture; herds of cattle, &c. &c.

PANORAMIC SURVEY OF ATTICA, THE ÆGEAN SEA, &c. FROM THE SUMMIT OF HYMETTUS.

North.—Parnes Mountain, and the valley east of Athens, leading to Pentelicus: the highest point of *Parnes* bearing due north.

North North-East.—A very high mountain covered with snow of a conical form, but at so great a distance that we could not decide with certainty as to its name: possibly it may have been the mountain mentioned by Wheler, belonging to Eubœa, and now called *Delphi*; but the bearing, according to his observation, was *north and by east*. Nearer to the eye, in this direction (N.N.E.), is one of the mountains of Eubœa, extending from *north and by east* to *north-east*; that is to say, the mountainous chain of *Negropont*.

North-East.—Pentelicus Mountain, intercepting, with its summit, the visible range of the *Negropont* Mountains.

North-East and by East.—The range of Eubœan Mountains (*olim, Ocha Mons*), extending to *east and by south*: the Sea of Marathon intervening in front.

East.—The Southern Promontory of Eubœa, called *Caristo*.

East and by South.—The strait between Andros and Eubœa.

East South-East.—The Summit of Andros.

South-East and by East.—Tenos: nearer to the eye, and nearly in the same direction, the north point of *Macronisi*, or Isle of Helena, extending thence towards *south-east and by south*.

South-East.—Gyaros, now called *Jara*; and half a point more towards the south, Mycone, and the Delian Isles.

South-East and by South.—Eastern point of *Zia*, *Ceos*; this island concealing all the Cyclades excepting *Cythus*, now *Thermia*.

South South-East.—Island of *Ceos*, now *Zia*.

South and by East.—*Cythus*, now *Thermia*, appearing beyond the southern

point of Ceos; and nearer to the eye, a mountain extending across the promontory of Attica from sea to sea, being opposed to Hymettus, (perhaps that called *Elimbo*). Still nearer, beneath the view, the Great Valley which lies between the two mountains, composing the three grand features of all Attica, south-east of Athens.

South.—Cape Sunium, bearing into the sea, in a line from *north-east* to *south-west*.

South and by West.—A lofty cape, with lower islands so much resembling the Cape and Precipice of Samos, with the Samian Boccaze, and the Isles of Fourni and Nicaria, that nothing but its situation by the compass could convince us to the contrary.

Between South and by West, and South-South-West.—An island at an immense distance, perhaps Caravi: it had some resemblance to Patmos; and our stupid guide insisted upon it that it was actually Patmos; calling it also *'Ayianisi*, "*Holy Island*."

South South-West.—The open sea. Close to the eye, upon the coast of Attica, a large mountain, forming, on this side of Hymettus, a profound and magnificent valley with precipitous sides.

South-West and by South.—An island somewhat resembling Amorgos, in its shape, but quite in a different situation, appearing beyond the south-eastern point of Hydra; perhaps Belo Poulou.

South-West.—Aristera, now called Hydra; extending in a line from the *south-east* towards the *north-west*.

South-West and by West.—The Scyllæan Promontory, and entrance to the Gulph of Argos; a small island lying in the mouth of it: the whole territory of Argolis being visible in this direction; its mountainous ridges exhibiting vast irregular undulations, like the boiling of a troubled sea.

West South-West.—Sinus Saronicus; the Island of Ægina, backed by the Mountains of Epidaurus.

West and by South.—More distant summits of Peloponnesus, even to Arcadia, seen between two small islands north-west of Ægina.

West.—Smaller Isles, and Rocks, towards the north of the Saronic Gulph; and distant Mountains of Peloponnesus.

West and by North.—Phalerum; and, beyond it, the south-west part of the Island of Salamis.

West North-West.—Piræus; the Island of Salamis; the Acropolis of Corinth, backed by very lofty mountains, separating Arcadia and Achaia, in the interior of Peloponnesus.

North-West and by West.—Megara; Mons Geranea; and other high mountains more distant.

North-West.—Eleusis, backed by a mountainous territory: the extremity of the Saronic Gulph: and in this direction the point of Ægaleos is visible where Xerxes is supposed to have sat during the battle of Salamis.

Then succeeds the Plain of Athens, covered, on the northern side, by extensive olive-plantations: afterwards, still nearer to the eye, appear the Acropolis and City of Athens, and all the Athenian Plain at the foot of Hymettus. Athens, as viewed from this situation, makes a most beautiful appearance: a description of it may be written as from a model. It lies in a valley, having Phalerum and the Sea to the west; Mount Pentelicus to the east; the mountainous range of Parnes, or Nozia, to the *north*; and Hymettus upon the *south*.

North-West and by North.—Exceeding high mountains of Bœotia and Phocis; one, nearer to the eye, shaped like a saddle, forming a range with Parnes from E.N.E. to W.S.W. In this direction, and immediately under the view, lies the double-rock of *Anchesmus*, in the Athenian Plain, to the east of Athens. With regard to the distant mountains, they are probably Helicon, now Zagara, and Cithæron, now Elatæa. Wheler lays the first N.W. by W. and the second, he says, begins N.W. by W. and ends N.W. by N.

North North-West.—Another distant and very lofty mountain, appearing with its blue peak towering behind the range of Mount Parnes, and possibly Parnassus.

North and by West.—Part of the range of Parnes; and, nearer to the eye, the fine valley or plain of Athens.

North.—Has been already noticed. The Circle is therefore here completed.

CALMUCK ARTIST.

This person was by birth a Calmuck, of the name of Theodore; he had distinguished himself among the painters at Rome, and had been brought to Athens to join the band of artists employed by our ambassador, over which Lusieri presided. With the most decided physiognomy of the wildest of his native tribes, although

as much humanized in his appearance as it was possible to make him by the aid of European dress and habits, he still retained some of the original characteristics of his countrymen; and, among others, a true Scythian relish for spirituous liquor: by the judicious administration of brandy, Lusieri could elicit from him, for the use of his patron, specimens of his art, combining the most astonishing genius with the strictest accuracy and the most exquisite taste. Theodore presented a marvellous example of the force of natural genius unsubdued by the most powerful obstacles. Educated in slavery; trained to the business of his profession beneath the active cudgels of his Russian masters; having also imbibed with his earliest impressions the servile propensities and sensual appetites of the tyrants he had been taught to revere; this extraordinary man arrived in Athens like another Euphranor, rivalling all that the fine arts had produced under circumstances the most favourable to their birth and maturity. The talents of Theodore, as a painter, were not confined, as commonly is the case among Russian artists, to mere works of imitation: although he could copy every thing, he could invent also; and his mind partook largely of the superior powers of original genius. With the most surprising ability, he restored and inserted into his drawings all the sculpture of which parts only remained in the mutilated bas-reliefs and buildings of the Acropolis. Besides this, he delineated, in a style of superior excellence, the same sculptures according to the precise state of decay in which they at present exist.

CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF — GRECIAN CITIES.

Athens, Argos, Nauplia, Corinth, and many more, had each their lofty citadel, with its dependent burgh and fertile plain: in this they resembled each other; but in certain characteristics they all differ. Athens appears as a forsaken habitation of holiness: for a moment, unmindful of the degrading character of its divinities, the spectator views, with a degree of awe, its elevated shrines, surrounded on every side by a mountain barrier, inclosing the whole district as within one consecrated Peribolus. Argos, with less of a priestly character, but equal in dignity, sits enthroned as

the mistress of the seas: facing the sun's most powerful beams, she spreads her flowery terraces, on either side, before the lucid bosom of the waters, in regal majesty. Nauplia, stretching out upon a narrow tongue of land, and commanded by impregnable heights, rich in the possession of her port, "the most secure and best defended in the Morea," but depending always upon Argos for supplies, was fitted, by every circumstance of natural form, to become a mercantile city, and the mart of Grecian commerce. Corinth, the Gibraltar of the Peloponnesus, by its very nature a fortress, is marked by every facility that may conduce to military operations, or render it conspicuous for its warlike aspect. In every part of Greece there is something naturally appropriate to the genius and the history of the place; as in the bubbling fountains and groves of Epidauria, sacred to Æsculapius; the pastoral scenes of Arcadia, dedicated to the muses and to Pan; the hollow rocks of Phocis, echoing to Pythian oracles; and perhaps the custom of making offerings to all the Gods, upon the summits of Olympus and Parnassus, did not so much originate in any Eastern practice, as in the peculiar facility wherewith the eye commanded from those eminences almost every seat of sanctity in Greece.

In various parts of Greece, where the labours of man have been swept away,—where time, barbarians, nay, even earthquakes, and every other moral and physical revolution, have done their work, an eternal city seems still to survive; because the acropolis, the stadium, the theatre, the sepulchres, the shrines, and the votive receptacles, are so many "sure and firm-set" rocks; slightly modified indeed by the hand of man, but upon which the blast of desolation passes like the breath of a zephyr. Argos is conspicuous in this class of cities: and if, in the approach to it from Tiryns, where Art seems to have rivalled Nature in the eternity of her existence, the view be directed towards the sea, a similar and not less striking object is presented in the everlasting citadel of Nauplia.

THE TEMPLE AT CORINTH.

We then visited the temple. It has been described by all travellers for near a century and a half. In Wheler's time it had eleven Doric pillars

pillars standing; the same number remained when Chandler visited the place. We found only seven remaining upright: but the fluted shaft may originally have belonged to this building, the stone being alike in both; that is to say, common limestone, not marble; and the dimensions are, perhaps, exactly the same in both instances, if each column could be measured at its base. When Wheler was here, the pillars were more exposed towards their bases; and being there measured, he found them to equal eighteen feet in circumference, allowing a diameter of six feet for the lower part of the shaft of each pillar. Only five columns of the seven now support an entablature. We measured the circumference of these, (as we conceived, about three feet from their bases) and found it to equal seventeen feet two inches. Each column consists of one entire piece of stone; but their height, instead of being equal to six diameters, the true proportion of the Doric shaft, according to Pliny, does not amount to four. The destruction that has taken place, of four columns out of the eleven seen by Wheler and Chandler, had been accomplished by the governor, who used them in building a house; first blasting them into fragments with gunpowder.

CLIMATE OF CORINTH.

When we reached the house where we were to pass the night, the author was again attacked with a violent paroxysm of fever, and remained until the morning stretched upon the floor in great agony. The air of Corinth is so bad, that its inhabitants abandon the place during the summer months. They are subject to the *malaria* fever, and pretend to remove it by all those superstitious practices which are common in every country where medicine is little known. We procured here some *terra-cottas* of very indifferent workmanship, and much inferior to those found near Argos; also a few medals and gems. There were no inscriptions; nor was there to be seen a single fragment of ancient sculpture. Such is now the condition of this celebrated seat of ancient art—this renowned city, once so vain of its high reputation, and of the rank it held among the Pagan States!

CANAL OF NERO.

In the Isthmus of Corinth, we found, what interested us much more,

the unfinished canal begun by Nero, exactly as the workmen had left it, in a wide and deep channel, extending N.W. and S.E. and reaching from the sea to the N.E. of Lechaum, about half a mile across the Isthmus. It terminates on the S.E. side, where the solid rock opposed an insurmountable obstacle to the work; and here the undertaking was abandoned.

PROSPECT FROM THE ACROCORINTHUS.

We reached this gate just before sun-set; and had, as is always usual from the tops of any of the Grecian mountains, a more glorious prospect than can be seen in any other part of Europe. Wheler calls it "the most agreeable prospect this world can give." And as from the Parthenon at Athens we had seen the Citadel of Corinth, so now we had a commanding view, across the Sinus Saronicus, of Salamis and of the Athenian Acropolis. Looking down upon the Isthmus, the shadow of the Acrocorinthus, of a conical shape, extended exactly half across its length, the point of the cone being central between the two seas. Towards the north we saw Parnassus covered with snow, and Helicon, and Cithæron. Nearer to the eye appeared the mountain Gerania, between Megara and Corinth.

THE TOWN OF ISTHMUS.

On Saturday, November the 14th, we again mounted our horses, and set out for a village still bearing the name of Hexamillia, being situated where the Isthmus is six miles over, and where the ancient town of the same name formerly stood. We had been told that we should be able to purchase medals here of the Albanians; accordingly we provided ourselves with a quantity of newly-coined *paraiks*, to barter in exchange for them. When we arrived, the number of medals brought to us, and their variety, were so great, that we demanded of the peasants where they had found them in such abundance? One of the inhabitants, who spoke the modern Greek, said they all came from a Palæo-Castro, to which they often drove their flocks; described by them as being situated near a small port at the extremity of the Isthmus, upon the side of the Gulph of Engia, towards Megara. This could be no other than the Port Schœnus; and the

the mere mention of this important appellation, Palæo-Castro, filled us with the most sanguine expectations that we should here find, what we had sought with so much earnestness, the site of the Isthmian solemnities.

We then rode directly towards the port and the mountain; and, crossing an artificial causeway over a fosse, we arrived in the midst of the ruins. A speedy and general survey of the antiquities here soon decided their history; for it was evident that we had at last discovered the real site of the Isthmian town, together with the ruins of the Temple of Neptune, of the Stadium, and of the Theatre. The earth was covered with fragments of various-coloured marble, grey granite, white limestone, broken pottery, disjointed shafts, capitals, and cornices.—Just at the place where the Isthmian Wall joins Mount Oneius, is a tumulus, perhaps that which was supposed to contain the body of Melicertes; in honour of whose burial the Isthmian games were instituted, above thirteen hundred years before the Christian æra. But among all the remains here, perhaps the most remarkable, as corresponding with the indications left us by Pausanias of the spot, is the living family of those pine-trees sacred to Neptune, which he says grew in a right line, upon one side, in the approach to the temple; the statues of victors in the games being upon the other side. Many of these, self-sown, are seen on the outside of the wall, upon the slope of the land facing the port. They may also be observed farther along the coast; which exactly agrees with a remark made by the same author, who relates, that in the beginning of the Isthmus there were pine-trees, to which the robber Sinis used to bind his captives. Every thing conspires to render their appearance here particularly interesting.

The vicinity of these ruins to the sea has very much facilitated the removal of many valuable antiquities, as materials for building; the inhabitants of all the neighbouring shores having long been accustomed to resort hither, as to a quarry: but no excavations have hitherto taken place.

MART FOR GRECIAN MEDALS.

As soon as we arrived at Hexamilia, the inhabitants of both sexes,

and of all ages, tempted by the sight which they had already gained of the new *parahs*, flocked around us, bringing carpets for us to sit upon in the open air: and a very curious market was opened for the sale of a single commodity; namely, the ancient medals found at different times among the ruins we had visited. The young women wore several silver medals mixed with base coin as ornaments, in a kind of cap upon their foreheads, and among their hair. These they were not very willing to dispose of; but the temptation offered by the shining *parahs* was not to be resisted, and we bought almost all we saw. The bronze coins were in great number: but we obtained many very curious medals in silver; and among these, the most ancient of the city of Corinth, in rude globular forms, exhibiting the head of Pallas in front, within a square indented cavity; and upon their obverse sides, those antique figures of Pegasus, in which the wings of the horse are inflected towards the mane. The medals with this die have been sometimes confounded with those of Sicily; but we obtained one whereon appeared, in Roman characters, the letters *cor*. One of the most curious things which we noticed among our acquisitions, was an ancient forgery, a base coin of Corinth, made of brass, and silvered over. The others consisted of silver and bronze medals, of Alexander the Great; of Phocis; of Tanagra in Bœotia; of Megara; of Alea in Arcadia; Argos; Sicyon; Ægina; and Chalcis; together with a few Roman coins, and some of less note.

PANDÆAN HORN.

On Sunday, November the 15th, there was a fair in Corinth. We saw nothing worth notice, except an Arcadian pipe, upon which a shepherd was playing in the streets. It was perfectly Pandæan; consisting simply of a goat's horn, with five holes for the fingers, and a small aperture at the end for the mouth. It is exceedingly difficult to produce any sound whatever from this small instrument; but the shepherd made the air resound with its shrill notes: and we bought his pipe.

VIEW OF ATHENS AT SUN-SET.

As the hills opened at the other extremity towards sun-set, such a prospect of Athens and the Athenian Plain, with all the surrounding scenery,

cases

burst upon our view, as never has been, nor can be described. It presented from the mouth or gap, facing the city, which divides Corydallus upon the south, now called the Laurel Mountain, from Ægaleon, a projecting part of Mount Parnes upon the north, immediately before descending into the extensive olive-plantations which cover all this side of the plain, upon the banks of the Cephissus. There is no spot whence Athens may be seen that can compare with this point of view; and if, after visiting the city, any one should leave it without coming to this eminence to enjoy the prospect here afforded, he will have formed a very inadequate conception of its unspeakable grandeur; for all that nature and art, by every marvellous combination of vast and splendid objects, can possibly exhibit, aided by the most surprising effect of colour, light, and shade, is here presented to the spectator. The wretched representations made of the scenes in Greece, even by the best designs yet published in books of travels, have often been a subject of regret among those who have witnessed its extraordinary beauties; and, in the list of them, perhaps few may be considered as inferior to the numerous delineations which have appeared of this extraordinary city. But, with such a spectacle before his eyes as this now alluded to, how deeply does the traveller deplore, that the impression is not only transitory as far as he is concerned in its enjoyment, but that it is utterly incapable of being transmitted to the minds of others.

SPECIMENS

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mens which we have selected that Mr. E. has performed his Herculean task with singular taste and ability.]

THE WORD CLASSIC.

POSSIBLY exception may be taken to the term "classic," as too indiscriminate in its acceptation. But this is a question of taste, and the term itself is, at best, arbitrary. That fondness for system, which marshals poets in the mass by reigns and periods, and, still more absurdly, by the metallic ages of gradual degeneracy, has led to much common-place declamation, and much tasteless injustice, as to the decay of poetry, and as to the claims of particular poets to the rank of classical.

The word "classic" is not, however, necessarily the symbol of the highest order of excellence. One of the senses affixed to it by Johnson is "relating to antique authors." It may therefore be used in simple contra-distinction to the modern Latin poets, such as Fracastorius, or Politian.

The term "classic" seems also a convenient designation, as distinguishing the Pagan from the Christian poets. Prudentius is often slid in among the classics; and I had in fact prepared for this collection an extract from his "Essay against Symmachus." But it occurred to me that I was equally bound to include Gregorius of Nazianzen, and Prosper, and Fortunatus, and Synesius, and Sidonius Apollinaris: "a line stretching out to the crack of doom." I have therefore set aside the Latin poets of the Christian church, as forming a class by themselves.

RHYME.

To the merits of rhyme I am not insensible. In didactic verse, when science is to be familiarized, or recondite philosophy unfolded and illustrated, the writer who discards rhyme will forego the valuable advantage of condensing and illuminating his matter, by that concise, perspicuous, and antithetic arrangement of language, which is favourable to the deductions of argument. The terse emphatical character of rhymed measure, the point of its close, and the uniformity of its structure, adapt it to round a period of sententious morality with impressive effect; to place words and sentiments in that contrast of opposition, which consists with turns of wit, and strokes of satire; and to dress up a thought with neatness, in short effusions of the elegiac or epigrammatic kind.

kind. The minute elegance of rhyme is also in unison with whatever is delicately refined, elaborately polished, or effeminately tender. The patriot may breathe the ardour of liberty in blank verse, but the lover must sigh in rhyme.

TRANSLATION.

Much as has been written on the subject of translation, I know not, even yet, that its true principles have been accurately defined; or that the line has been drawn, with sufficient rigour and exactness, between verbal metaphor and paraphrastical licence. Some critics, even in the present day, appear to think that a translator has only to render the letter of his author, without adding or omitting; while others allow the latitude, not merely of consulting the genius of a modern language by synonymous or circuitous expressions, but of running a sort of rivalry with the original: improving the author where he is judged susceptible of improvement, and modifying his faults, and supplying his deficiencies, where he is judged faulty or deficient. On this subject I shall offer some remarks; both that the reader may be in possession of the principles by which I have endeavoured to regulate my own practice, and that he may be enabled to judge for himself whether these principles be or be not founded on reason.

Much of the notion, that to please is a translator's first object, has arisen from that superciliousness with which men of classical erudition are accustomed to look down on those whom they consider as unlearned. It is however a mistake, that the readers of translations read for amusement only: or that Homer, and Juvenal, and Sallust, are inspected only by unlettered persons. Translations are most in request with persons of cultivated understandings; with literary women, and with men of active inquiring minds, and an appetite for letters; but whose occupations in busy professional life have precluded them from the advantage of studying the classics in the original languages. Such persons do not read merely to amuse their fancy; they read for the purpose of placing themselves on a level, in point of literary taste and information, with finished scholars. To these persons a faithful version of a classic possesses a value, wholly independent of the gratification arising from elegant language, or polished

sentiment; and, with respect to them, the translator who improves his author, improves, not to delight, but to mislead.

HOMER.

Homer must not be tried by the standard of modern taste. The coarseness of his occasional details, the prolixity of his speeches, the puerility of some of his fables, are chargeable on the manners of his age. His genius is the genius of ancient bardism; borrowing its conceptions from the fresh and original observations of living and inanimate nature, and of the busy scenes of human life. Both Homer and Shakespeare drew immediately from nature; the latter did not derive his knowledge of men and things through the strainers of civilization; and this want of what has been called the advantage of learning effected for him what the state of manners, in a rude age, had effected for Homer. In both we see the same forcible and unaffected display of circumstances, whether great or little; the same versatility of fancy and intuitiveness of feeling; and the same strong specific likeness of character.

Nature seems to me the grand distinguishing characteristic of Homer. His critics have preferred defining his character by sublimity; and this sublimity perhaps has not been very happily illustrated. Pope represents Homer as "firing the heavens," like his own Jupiter; and seems to suppose that he is most himself in scenes of vehemence and terror. But, in putting Omnipotence in action, Homer is perhaps excelled by Hesiod. It is in the serene majesty of Deity in repose that the powers of his genius appear most astonishing, and in that mental sublime which is conversant with human passion. When we have once imagined a giant, it requires no great effort to make him stride, in three steps, from one promontory to another; but it is not every poet who can represent Achilles receiving in his tent the embassy from Agamemnon with the calm severity of dignified resentment, or smiting his thigh with a start of generous emotion at the sight of the Grecian ships in flames.

From the Iliad.

SUIT OF THETIS TO JUPITER.

NEAR his swift-sailing ships indignant sate
The noble son of Peleus, fleet of foot
Achilles; nor frequented he, as wont,

The hero-honour'd council, nor the field;
But, with his heart thus preying on itself,
Remain'd aloof; yet panting secretly
For shouts of battle and the shock of war.
Now, when the twelfth day broke, at length
return'd

The ever-living gods, together all
Ascending up Olympus; at their head
Went Jupiter. Nor Thetis then forgot
Her son's injunctions: but at once emerg'd
From the sea-wave, and, with the break of
dawn,
Rose upward into heaven, and touch'd the
mount.

There found she Jove, of far-discerning eyes,
Lone sitting, from all other gods apart,
On many-cragg'd Olympus' highest ridge,
And sate before him. Then, her left hand
clasp'd

Around his knees, her right beneath his chin
Extended held, in word and posture thus
A suppliant, the Saturnian king besought:
"Oh Father Jove! if ere by word or deed
I could delight thee, now fulfil my wish;
Give honour to my son, whose days are short
Among the living; for the king of men,
Ev'n Agamemnon, hath entreated him
With foul reproach, and seizing on his prize
Retains her. But, oh wise, oh heavenly
Jove!

Honour him thou! vouchsafe the Trojan host
The victory, till that the Greeks regard
With reverent fear, and magnify my son!"

She said. The gatherer of the clouds of
heav'n

Answer'd her nothing; but immoveable
Sate long in silence. She, as she had grasp'd
His knees, so clinging held them; and again,
Not so repuls'd, demanded: "Openly
Grant me this promise, and confirm the
same,

Or now refuse me; for in thee abides
No fear. Then speak, that I may know too
well

How little honour'd in thy thoughts am I
O'er all the goddesses in heaven." But
Jove,

Gatherer of clouds, sigh'd heavily, and spake:
"It is a deed of mischief thou hast done;
Turning on me the bickering enmity
Of Juno, who will goad me with her taunts.
Ev'n now unceasingly, though still in vain,
Before the Immortals she rebukes me thus,
And speaks of succour'd Troy. But go, de-
part,

Lest Juno should perceive thee. Leave to
me

The care of this; and that thou may'st be-
lieve,

I give the nod, that greatest sign in heav'n;
If I but bent this brow, that will'd decree
Is past recall; unchangeable it stands;
Its truth is sure, nor shall its promise fail."

He spoke, and bowed his forehead, knitted
stern

With dark'ning brows; the agitated locks,
Dropping ambrosia, round th' immortal head

Of Heaven's king shook and rock'd th'
Olympian hill.

So their deep consult ended, they at once
Both parted: She from off the gilded mount
Leap'd headlong down into the depths of sea:
Jove pass'd within his palace. All the gods
Rose, and stood up together from their seats,
To meet the sire of heaven. His coming
none

Awaited there, but towards his entrance
turn'd

And stood: he pass'd and sate upon his
throne.

HESIOD.

Hesiodus Ascræus, or the Ascræan, has left us some biographical particulars of himself in his writings. We learn that his father, in distressed circumstances, emigrated from Cuma in Æoliato Ascra, a village in Bœotia, at the foot of Mount Helicon; that he had a law-suit with his brother Perses, who obtained the chief share of the patrimony by bribing the judges: and that he had once crossed the strait of Euripus to the isle of Eubœa, on occasion of a poetical contest, and won a tripod as the prize, which he dedicated to the Muses of Helicon. It has been pretended, on the faith of a clumsy fabrication of the age of Adrian, that his competitor was Homer; but Cicero considers Homer as preceding Hesiod by several ages.

The poems of Hesiod contain those curious legends of mythologized history, which are found in the ancient theologies of all nations, and which bear a striking affinity to the records of sacred Scripture. Such are the origin of labour through the instrumentality of woman, the concealment of the children of Heaven in a dark cave, and the attempt of a giant with many voices to usurp a universal empire over Gods and men. The dry titles of these poems, and certain homely details in the poems themselves, have repelled curiosity; but they are assuredly mistaken, who entertain a notion that his poetry is little else than a nomenclature of gods, and a string of saws and proverbs. Voltaire thought the Pandora of Hesiod superior in elegance to any thing of the kind in Homer. To Hesiod Ovid is indebted for his ages, Virgil for his conception of a poem on husbandry, and Milton for his battle of angels; and from the beautiful moral allegories in "the Works and Days," has arisen the well-known

known apologue of Hercules, Sloth and Virtue.

DISPENSATIONS OF PROVIDENCE TO THE JUST AND THE UNJUST.

WITH crooked judgments, lo! the oath's dread God

Avenging runs, and tracks them where they trod.

Rough are the ways of Justice as the sea,
Dragg'd to and fro by men's corrupt decree :
Bribe-pamper'd men ! whose hands perverting draw

The right aside and warp the wrested law.
Though, while Corruption on their sentence waits,

They thrust pale Justice from their haughty gates ;

Invisible their steps the Virgin treads,
And musters evils o'er their sinful heads.
She with the dark of air her form arrays,
And walks in awful grief the city ways ;
Her wail is heard, her tear upbraiding falls
O'er their stain'd manners, their devoted walls.

But they who never from the right have stray'd,

Who as the citizen the stranger aid ;
They and their cities flourish ; genial Peace
Dwells in their borders, and their youth increase .

Nor Jove, whose radiant eyes behold afar,
Hangs forth in Heaven the signs of grievous war.

Nor dearth nor scath the upright just pursues ;

Feasts all their care ; while earth abundance strews.

Rich are their mountain oaks : the topmost tree

The acorns fill ; its trunk the hiving bee :
Their sheep with fleeces pant ; their women's race

Reflect both parents in the infant face :
Still flourish they, nor tempt with ships the main ;

The fruits of earth are pour'd from every plain.

But o'er the wicked race, to whom belong
The thought of evil and the deed of wrong,
Saturnian Jove, of wide beholding eyes,
Bids the dark signs of retribution rise :
And oft the crimes of one destructive fall,
The crimes of one are visited on all.
The God sends down his angry plagues from high,

Famine and pestilence ; in heaps they die :
He smites with barrenness the marriage bed,
And generations moulder with the dead :
Again in vengeance of his wrath, he falls
On their great hosts, and breaks their tottering walls ;

Scatters their ships of war ; and where the sea

Heaves high its mountain billows, there is he.

Ponder, oh judges ! in your inmost thought
The retribution by his vengeance wrought.

Invisible the gods are ever nigh,
Pass through the midst and bend th' all-seeing eye :

The men who grind the poor, who wrest the right,

Awless of Heaven's revenge, are naked to their sight.

For thrice ten thousand holy demons rove
This breathing world, the delegates of Jove.
Guardians of man, their glance alike surveys
The upright judgments, and th' unrighteous ways.

A virgin pure is Justice, and her birth
August from him who rules the heavens and earth ;

A creature glorious to the gods on high,
Whose mansion is yon everlasting sky.
Driven by spiteful wrong she takes her seat,

In lowly grief, at Jove's eternal feet.

There of the soul unjust her plaints ascend ;
So rue the nations when their kings offend :
When, uttering wiles and brooding thoughts of ill,

They bend the laws and wrest them to their will.

Oh ! gorged with gold, ye kingly judges, hear !

Make straight your paths ; your crooked judgments fear ;

That the foul record may no more be seen,
Erased, forgotten, as it ne'er had been !

TYRTÆUS.

Tyrtæus, the son of Archimbrotus, was born at Miletus, the capital of Ionia ; but was naturalized in Athens : where he appears to have presided in a school of music and poetry, which the Greeks studied, not as mere liberal arts, but as honourable and important sciences. It is a common tradition, that the Spartans being worsted in the Messenian war, consulted the Delphic oracle, and were directed to request a general from the Athenians ; who, in ridicule, sent them the poet Tyrtæus. Why this should have been in ridicule is not very apparent. Æschylus, immortal by his tragic poetry, was no less famed as a warrior in the battle of Marathon and the sea-fight of Salamis. Some account for the scornful intention by supposing Tyrtæus deformed, and blind of an eye : a species of military disqualification, which would equally have affected Agesilaus and Hannibal. It is added, however, that Tyrtæus animated the Spartan soldiers by his martial poetry, to such a pitch of enthusiasm, that they at once overcame the Messenians. In all this there is not a syllable of truth. The process of this poetic influence must be acknowledged to be somewhat slow, when

when it is considered that, after the association of Tyrtæus in the command, the Spartans were baffled by the romantic valour of Aristomenes for the space of eleven years; nor did they at length obtain possession of the fortress of Eira, into which the brave Messenians had withdrawn themselves, by any sudden burst of extraordinary heroism, but through the instrumentality of a Lacedæmonian slave and a Messenian adulteress. The fact probably is, that Tyrtæus, like all other Athenians, had borne arms; and that both the studied slight and the poetic inspiration are equally chimerical.

The compositions remaining of Tyrtæus breathe a high spirit of military honour. The style is nervous and close, yet easy and perspicuous.

WAR ELEGY.

Not on the lips, nor yet in memory's trace
Should that man live, though rapid in the
 race,

And firm in wrestling; though Cyclopi-
 an might

Be his, and fleetness like a whirlwind's flight;
Though than Tithonus lovelier to behold;
Like Cynaras, or Midas, grac'd with gold;
Than Pelop's realm more kingly his domain;
More sweet his language than Adrastus'
 strain;

Not though he boast all else of mortal praise,
Yet want the glory of the warrior's bays.

He is not brave who not endures the sight
Of blood; nor, man to man, in closest fight,
Still pants to press the foe: here bravery lies;
And here of human fame the chieftest prize.

This noblest badge the youth of honour
 bears,

And this the brightest ornament he wears,
This, as a common good, the state possess,
And a whole people, here, their safety bless,
Firm and unyielding, when the armed man
Still presses on, and combats in the van;
And casts the thought of shameful flight
 away;

And patient-daring, to the perilous fray
Presents his life and soul; and with his eye
And voice exhorts his fellow men to die,
Here is the warrior sound; this, this is
 bravery.

He breaks the bristling phalanx from afar;
His foresight rules the floating wave of war;
Fallen in the foremost ranks, he leaves a
 name,

His father's glory, and his country's fame.
All on the front, he bears full many a wound,
That rived his breast-plate and his buckler's
 round;

Old men and youths let fall the sorrowing
 tear,

And a whole people mourns around his bier,
Fame decks his tomb, and shall his children
 grace,

And children's children, to their latest race.

For ne'er his name, his generous glory, dies;
Though tomb'd in earth, he shall immortal
 rise;

Who dared, persisting, in the field remain,
And act his deeds, till number'd with the
 slain:

While charging thousands rush'd, resisting
 stood,

And, for his sons and country, pour'd his
 blood.

But if, escaping the long sleep of death,
He wins the splendid battle's glorious wreath;
Him with fond gaze gray sires and youths
 behold,

And life is pleasant, till his days are old.
Conspicuous midst the citizens, he wears
The silver glory of his snowy hairs.

None 'gainst his peace conspire with shame-
 less hate,

None seek to wrong the saviour of the state;
The younger, and his equals, reverent rise;
His elders quit their seats, with honouring
 eyes;

Then to this height of generous deeds aspire;
And let the soul of war thy patriot bosom
 fire.

ANACREON.

TO A PAINTER.

BEST of painters! now dispense
All thy tinted eloquence;

Master of the roseate art,
Paint the mistress of my heart,
Paint her, absent though she be,
Paint her as described by me.

Paint her hair in tresses flowing;
Black as jet its ringlets glowing;
If the pallet soar so high,
Paint their humid fragrantcy.
Let the colour smoothly show
The gentle prominence of brow;
Smooth as ivory let it shine,
Under locks of glossy twine.

Now her eyebrows length'ning bend;
Neither sever them, nor blend:
Imperceptible the space
Of their meeting arches trace;
Be the picture like the maid;
Her dark eye-lids fringed with shade.

Now the real glance inspire;
Let it dart a liquid fire;
Let her eyes reflect the day,
Like Minerva's, hazel-gray,
Like those of Venus, swimming bright,
Brimful of moisture and of light.

Now her faultless nose design
In its flowing aquiline:
Let her cheeks transparent gleam,
Like to roses strew'd in cream;
Let her lips seduce to bliss,
Pouting to provoke the kiss.

Now her chin minute express,
Rounded into prettiness;
There let all the graces play;
In that dimpled circle stray;
Round her bended neck delay;
Marble pillar, on the sight
Shedding smooth its slippery white.

For the rest, let drapery swim
In purplish folds o'er every limb ;
But with flimsy texture show
The shape, the skin, that partial glow.
Enough—herself appears ; 'tis done ;
The picture breathes ; the paint will
speak anon.

PINDAR.

Neither in his numbers, which are strictly metrical, nor in the plan of his poems, which are of uniform contrivance, is Pindar, as he appears to us, that foaming enthusiast, that maniacal bard, that "furious prophet," which the received opinion would lead us to believe. We see in Pindar a man of genius, escaping from the barren monotony of his subject, with an intuitive judgment and facility, which to the Greeks, who listened with interest to their historic legends and mythological tales, must have appeared delightful. Pindar saw that a chariot-race could admit of no variety ; he therefore merely used his subject and his hero, as hints for different episodes ; not confusedly jumbled together, but growing out of each other. If the conqueror in the race had any pretensions to a descent from gods or heroes, he seized the occasion, by tracing his pedigree, to emblazon his ode with fabulous marvels, or heroic exploits ; if this were denied him, he struck out some moral truth, which he proceeded to illustrate from some tale of mythical lore ; this tale suggested another ; and that perhaps a third ; but they all hinged together ; and he brought back the reader, at the close, to the subject from which he had digressed. An attention to this method of Pindar will show that, so far from bounding along on an ungovernable Pegasus, nothing can be more steady, or more managed, than his paces ; nothing more systematic than the structure of his poems, or more lucid than the disposition of his subject ; and his style also, so far from sweeping along with the rapidity ascribed to it, is rather grave and solemn ; and invested with a certain composed, and stately energy. The art of his plan is however the result of a felicity of genius, and not of labour. Critics of the French school, who talk of Pindar's metaphoric diction as exceeding the just limits of what they, cantingly, call a correct style, appear to fancy that he fashioned these bold metaphors on the anvil, with a forced

heat, and a pedantic ambition to be great and swelling ; but they only show that they understand neither the genius of ancient manners, nor that of the Greek language. There is no labour in Pindar ; and there cannot be a greater proof of the vulgar misconception respecting him, than the common comparison of Pindar with Gray ; whose whole poetical life was consumed in the painful elaboration of a few slender odes, in which we trace the common-places of a scholar's reading, and perceive the odour of the lamp. Collins bears an infinitely closer resemblance to the simple spontaneousness, the fine abstraction, and ideal sublime of Pindar ; but perhaps if we wished for a parallel with Pindar's odes, we must seek it in the odes and chorusses of Milton. We perceive in the lyrics of Milton, and in the odes of Pindar, a similar copiousness of words and thoughts and images, rolling forth, as if involuntarily, from the deep and abundant sources of fancy and reflection : a similar severe and chaste style, relieved by a freshness of colour, and picturesqueness of manner in descriptive painting, and the intermixture of gorgeously-romantic imagery ; a similar lofty and calm abstractedness of imagination ; and the same purity and unworldliness of feeling ; the same religious tone, and almost oracular emphasis, in the uttering of moral truths.

ONOMACRITUS.

UNDER THE NAME OF ORPHEUS.

Onomacritus was a priest and soothsayer of Athens. He professed to be in possession of certain oracular verses of the poet Musæus ; which he dispensed to the people for a pecuniary emolument. He was in high favour with Hipparchus ; but, being charged by Lasus, a poet and philosopher of Hermione, with issuing forged oracles, he was banished. He afterwards made one of the deputation from the princes of Thessaly, sent to the Persian king, for the purpose of inviting the invasion of Greece ; and he is said to have predicted to Xerxes that he would throw a bridge over the Hellespont : a prophecy which naturally tended to its own accomplishment. He is thought to be the real author of the poems ascribed to Orpheus. The probability is that he was in possession of certain genuine Orphic fragments, which he

used as the ground-work of his fabrication.

FROM THE ORPHIC REMAINS.

I.

ONE self-existent lives ; created things
Arise from him ; and he is all in all.
No mortal sight may see him ; yet himself
Sees all that live. He out of good can bring
Evil to men ; dread battle ; tearful woes ;
He, and no other. Open to thy sight
Were all the chain of things, could'st thou
behold

The godhead, ere as yet he step'd on earth.
My son ! I will display before thine eyes
His footsteps, and his mighty hand of power.
Himself I cannot see. The rest is veil'd
In clouds ; and ten-fold darkness intercepts
His presence. None discerns the lord of men
But he, the sole-begotten, of the tribe
Of old Chaldeans ; he, to whom was known
The path of stars, and how the moving sphere
Rolls round this earth, in equal circle framed,
Self-balanced on her centre. 'Tis the God
Who rules the breathing winds, that sweep
around

The vault of air, and round the flowing swell
Of the deep watery element ; and shows
Forth, from on high, the glittering strength
of flame.

Himself, above the firmament's broad arch,
Sits on a throne of gold ; the round earth lies
Under his feet. He stretches his right hand
To th' uttermost bounds of ocean, and the
root

Of mountains trembles at his touch : nor
stands

Before his mighty power. For he alone
All-heavenly is, and all terrestrial things
Are wrought by him. First, midst, and last,
he holds

With his omniscient grasp. So speaks the
lore

Of ancient wisdom ; so the man who sprang
Forth from the cradling waters speaks ; who
took

The double tables of the law from God ;
Other to speak were impious. Every limb
I tremble, and my spirit quakes within.

II.

Jove is the first and last ; who th' infant thun-
der hurl'd ;

Jove is the head and midst ; the framer of the
world ;

Jove is a male ; a nymph of bloom immortal,
Jove ;

Jove is the base of earth, and starry Heaven
above.

Jove is the breath of all ; the force of quench-
less flame ;

The root of ocean Jove ; the sun and moon
the same.

Jove is the king, the sire, whence generation
sprang ;

One strength, one demon, great, on whom all
beings hang ;

His regal body grasps the vast material round ;
There fire, earth, air, and wave, and day and
night are found ;

Wisdom, first maker, there, and joy-prolific
Love ;

All these centering fill the mighty frame
of Jove.

III.

Hear me, thou ! for ever whirling round the
rolling heavens on high !

Thy far-travelling orb of splendour, midst the
whirlpools of the sky !

Hear, effulgent Jove, and Bacchus ! father
both of earth and sea !

Sun all-various ! golden beaming ! all things
teeming out of thee !

THEOCRITUS.

THE YOUNG HERCULES.

It chanced upon a time, when Hercules
Was ten months old, him with his brother-
twin,

The younger by a night, when freshly bathed,
And suckled full with milk, Alcmena placed
Within the brazen shield Amphitryon stripp'd
From Pteleraus, when he fell in fight.

Then the fair woman, touching with her
hand

The head of both the infants, whisper'd thus ;
"Sleep, oh my boys ! a gentle sleep ; the
sleep

That wakes again ; sleep, sweetest souls, dear
twins !

Sleep, happy brothers ! happy till the dawn !"
She spoke, and rock'd the ample shield ;
and them

Sleep overcame. But, when in middle night
The Bear turn'd westering, near Orion's star,
And he his shoulder broad display'd in
heaven,

Then, brooding many mischiefs, Juno sent
Two heinous monsters ; rustling, as they
roll'd,

On azure spires, they, 'twixt the hollow
chinks

Of the wide mansion's gate-posts, glided in
Athwart the threshold, goaded by her threats,
There to devour the infant Hercules.

They, grovelling on the earth, still roll'd
along

On their blood-pamper'd bellies ; as they
went,

They shot a flame malignant from their eyes,
And dropp'd a poisonous foam. But, when
they came

Close nigh the babes, with forked-quivering
tongues

Licking their gaping jaws, both waked at
once ;

Alcmena's darling children ; both at once
Sprang up awake ; for they were in the eye
Of all-o'erseeing Jove ; and sudden light
Flash'd through the chamber. One shriek'd
out aloud,

Feeling the noxious snakes, that slippery
crept

Within the hollow buckler's rim, and scared
At their grim fangs ; so struggling with his feet
He discomposed the soft and woollen cloak.
And spurn'd it loose from off him, and was
fain

To fly. The other faced them full, and seized
 With straining grasp, and bound them hard
 in knots,
 Squeezing the serpents' necks, abhor'd of
 heaven,
 Where lurk'd the heinous poison. They their
 spires
 Coil'd round the later born and sucking babe.
 Who ne'er with tears had wet his nurse's
 breast;
 And loosed again their writhing folds, and
 shrank
 With agonizing scales, and strove to slip
 From the constraining knot. Alcmena heard
 The tumult, and, first waking, sudden cried:
 "Rise, my Amphitryo; for a shivering fear
 Seizes upon me: rise; nor wait to bind
 The sandals on thy feet. Dost thou not hear
 Our youngest son, how loud his cries? and lo!
 Discern'st thou not, that in untimely night
 The walls are visible, as in the shine
 Of the clear morning? something, husband
 dear!
 Something of strange and of miraculous
 Is now within our dwelling; yea, even now."
 She said; and he, complying with his
 spouse,
 Descended from the bed, and reach'd his hand
 To grasp in haste his high-wrought sword,
 that still
 Close at the cedar-framed couch's head,
 Hung on a nail; he snatch'd the twisted thong,
 And with his left hand drew the scabbard off,
 Fram'd of the lote-tree. Suddenly again
 The chamber sank in gloom; then loud he
 call'd
 The menials, breathing hard in slumbers deep;
 "Snatch quick a burning firebrand from the
 hearth,
 My servants!—haste, unbar your doors, and
 rise,
 My trusty servants!" so he call'd aloud;
 And straight the menials came, each in his
 hand
 A flaming torch; and all the house was fill'd
 With the wide-hastening throng. They, when
 they saw
 The little Hercules, who firmly grasp'd
 The two huge serpents in his straining hands,
 Shriek'd out; but he stretch'd in Amphitry-
 on's view
 The gasping snakes; and, in his joy, leap'd up
 Like a young child; and laughingly before
 His father's feet cast the fell monsters down,
 Lethargic now in death. Alcmena laid
 The froward Iphicles upon her breast;
 The whilst Amphitryo placed the other babe
 Beneath the fleecy cloak; and sought again
 The bed which he had left, and broken sleep.

MELEAGER.

CHARMS OF THE SEX.

Oh locks, that Damo's forehead wreath!
 Oh Heliodora's sandal'd feet!
 And oh Timarion's doors, that breathe
 Moist odours from her chamber sweet;

Oh Anticlea's smiles, that shed
 A tender luxury of light;
 Oh fillet! blooming fresh to sight
 On Dorothea's flower-twined head!
 Love! not thy golden quiver hides,
 In close reserve the winged dart;
 Each arrow through my vitals glides;
 I feel, I feel them in my heart!

PLAYING AT HEARTS.

Love acts the tennis-player's part,
 And throws to thee my panting heart.
 Heliodora! ere it fall,
 Let Desire catch swift the ball;
 Let her in the ball-court move
 Fellow in the game with Love;
 If thou throw me back again,
 I shall of foul play complain.

LUCRETIVS.

As a didactic poet and reasoner in
 verse, there is no writer, with the ex-
 ception of Pope, who can be compared
 with Lucretius. His skill and perspi-
 cuity in pressing his inferences and pur-
 suing his trains of argument, are as-
 sisted by the lucid elegance of his lan-
 guage, and a style emphatical and
 clear. His luminous and nervous dic-
 tion, and the grandeur of his versifica-
 tion, throw over the abstruseness of
 metaphysics a splendid and agreeable
 colouring; and the unremitting ardour
 of his manner, no less than the fertility
 of his matter, enables him to take full
 and despotic possession of the faculties
 of the reader. If his knowledge of
 physics, and particularly of astronomy,
 appear often limited and imperfect,
 his mind was evidently exercised by a
 minute observation of natural pheno-
 mena, and imbued with no inconsider-
 able portion of general science. With
 his fondness for scientific demonstra-
 tions drawn from subjects of natural
 philosophy, and his expertness in lo-
 gical processes of reasoning, he com-
 bines the seldom-associated qualities
 of a rich and excursive imagination,
 and a genius which delights in glowing
 creations of imagery, and in bold and
 magnificent conceptions. His poetry
 is marked by a peculiar romantic wild-
 ness, and a kind of gloomy and melan-
 choly sublimity: yet his fancy is
 equally conversant with soft and smil-
 ing images, and the delicate grouping
 of some of his figures would furnish
 subjects for the pencil and the chisel.
 The philosophy of "The Garden,"
 founded in its moral theory on a close
 observation of the constitution of our
 nature, had instructed him that sere-
 nity and content are the concomitants
 of

of temperate habits and moderated desires; and that dissatisfaction and remorse follow vice as its shadow. Some passages in "The Nature of Things," breathe a moral wisdom worthy of Socrates or Plato. The pruriency of certain descriptions in the poem has subjected Lucretius to the charge of favouring libertinism. That they will have this effect on minds already vitiated must be admitted; but they, who perceive in the physiological disquisitions of Lucretius a mere design to pamper the passions, would equally feel their imaginations inflamed by a lecture on anatomy.

TRIUMPH OF PHILOSOPHY OVER SUPERSTITION.

On earth in bondage base existence lay,
Bent down by Superstition's iron sway.
She from the Heavens disclosed her monstrous head,
And, dark with grisly aspect, scowling dread,
Hung o'er the sons of men: but towards the skies

A man of Greece dared lift his mortal eyes,
And first resisting stood: not him the fame
Of Deities, the lightning's forked flame,
Or muttering murmurs of the threat'ning sky
Repress'd; but roused his soul's great energy
To break the bars that interposing lay,
And through the gates of nature burst his way.

That vivid force of soul a passage found;
The flaming walls that close the world around
He far o'erleap'd; his spirit soar'd on high
Through the vast whole, the one infinity:
Victor, he brought the tidings from the skies,
What things in nature may, or may not, rise;
What stated laws a power finite assign,
And still with bounds impassable confine.
Thus trod beneath our feet the phantom lies;
We mount o'er Superstition to the skies.

But fear restrains me, lest perchance thou deem

My precepts school thee in an impious scheme,
And lead thee into sin: yet rumour old
Of thy religion's impious deeds has told.
The flower of Grecian chiefs in Aulis stains
With Iphigenia's blood Diana's fanes;
She, when her virgin locks the fillet tied
That on her cheeks hung loose on either side,
When near she saw her father pensive stand,
And priests conceal the knife with stealthy hand,

And her surrounding countrymen in tears,
On earth she knelt with mute beseeching fears:

Yet could it not, alas! avail to save
That to the king a father's name she gave.
Snatch'd to the altar, trembling and forlorn,
Not as a bride in pomps of marriage borne,
But in her blooming marriageable prime,
To bleed the victim of a father's crime,
Pollution foul! his wind-bound fleet to speed;
And yet religion could persuade the deed.

HORACE.

TO A RICH MAN.

No fretted gold, nor ivory, gleams
Around my vaulted roof: no citron-beams,
Cleft in Hymettian woods, recline
On marble columns hewn from Afric's mine:
Nor have I climb'd, a stranger heir,
To childless Attalus' imperial chair:
Nor modest wives for me have spun
The threads that from the reel in purple run:
I only boast a faithful heart;
A vein free—flowing of poetic art;
And that the great have sought the door
Of my poor cot: I ask of heaven no more:
Nor, at my generous patron's hand,
A larger bounty restlessly demand.
Day treads on day in ceaseless haste,
And moons, new-orb'd, in waning circuit waste;

You, on the edge of death, design
Your walls, and hire the labourers of the mine;

Forgetful, while you build on high,
That the hewn marble may your tomb supply.
Onward you push the Baian shore
By piles encroaching on the watery roar;
Impatient of the mean domain
Which earth can limit, or a strand contain.
But, though you thrust, in wealthy pride,
The landmark of the neighbouring field aside;
Though o'er your client's humble mound,
In lust of avarice, you disdainful bound;
Though husband, wife, in exile stray,
Hug their poor babes, and bear their Gods away,

Yet no more certain mansions wait
The greedy lord of all this guilty state,
Than the devouring grave's abode,
His destined term, and barrier of his road.
Why further bend your wishful eyes,
When here the goal of your ambition lies?
And know, in earth's impartial breast,
The poor and princes, undistinguish'd, rest.

OVID.

Ovid is rather an ingenious than a great poet: though some passages, as that of the Creation, contain noble images and sublime thoughts; but he had too much wit, too unregulated a fancy, and too dangerous a facility of composition. His descriptions run into florid amplification: he is fond of far-fetched thoughts, and puerile conceits, and has often an artificial and affected air, when he intends to be pathetic. Yet that he had feeling, appears from the many natural strokes of tenderness which are scattered through his works. He excels mostly in sentiment: in happy turns of thought, especially on amorous subjects, expressed in close, pointed, and emphatical language: which forms an exception to the tawdry and feeble diffuseness

fuseness of his general style. It is usually said, that there is a marked inferiority in the Epistles which he wrote from Pontus. This is a mere fancy: had he not written them in exile, we should have heard nothing of diminished spirit and impaired powers. The merits of terse expression are the same as in his former poems; and the inequalities of his former poems are, to the full, as conspicuous as in these.

Ovid has set an example, which has been followed with too much success by modern writers, of prostituting the elegancies of language to the purpose of seducing the passions, by heightened pictures of refined sensuality. The close of his life has, however, left us an antidote to the poison of his poetry. Ovid was not deficient in a knowledge of human nature, and seems aware how much a systematic, habitual, and engrossing voluptuousness enervates the soul, together with the body. Of this he had the misfortune to furnish, himself, a practical instance. Let it be remembered by those, who admire this 'prevailing gentle art,' of sensualising our intellect, that Ovid, in his banishment, was sustained by no self-respecting consciousness; by no resources of a firm and philosophical mind; but sank at once into an abject prostration of spirit.

THE CREATION.

ERE earth, and sea, and covering heavens,
were known,
The face of nature, o'er the world was one;
And men have call'd it Chaos; formless, rude,
The mass; dead matter's weight, inert, and
crude;
Where, in mix'd heap of ill-compounded
mould,
The jarring seeds of things confusedly roll'd.
No sun yet beam'd from yon cærulean height;
No orbiting moon repair'd her horns of light;
No earth, self-poised, on liquid ether hung;
No sea its world-enclasping waters flung;
Earth was half-air, half-sea; an embryo heap;
Nor earth was fix'd, nor fluid was the deep;
Dark was the void of air; no form was traced;
Obstructing atoms struggled through the
waste;
Where cold, and hot, and moist, and dry re-
bell'd;
Heavy the light, and hard the soft repell'd.
Some better Nature, or some God, was he,
That laid the strife, and sever'd earth from sea,
The sky from earth, and ether's liquid glow
From the dim atmosphere of clouds below;
Clear'd the dark waste, the mingled mass
unwound,
And disentangled parts in concord bound.

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The fiery spirit of the convex heaven
Sprang to the height, with upward impulse
driven;
Air, next in station as in lightness, roll'd;
Earth sank by its own weight, of denser, hea-
vier mould;
Circumfluous waters seized th' extremest
verge,
And grasp'd the solid globe with rounding
surge.

LUCAN.

PASSAGE OF CATO AND HIS ARMY
THROUGH THE DESERTS OF AFRIC.

No vital temperature of air is felt;
Nor ether, with benignant influence, here
Pervades the soil. In torpid sluggishness
Of nature droops the clime, and feels no growth
Of seasons in th' inert expanse of sand.
Yet this so sluggish soil puts forth thin herbs,
Cull'd by the men of Nasamon; a race
Who, train'd to toils, in naked wildness roam
Tracts on the ocean's edge. Their means of
life

The Syrtes supply; the losses of a world.
For on the sandy shores the plunderer hangs,
Initiated in wealth; though never keel
Touch that inhospitable port. The wrecks
Spread on the barren strand of Nasamon
The commerce of the globe. To this wild tract
Does Cato's hardy virtue bid his bands
Advance their standards. Unsuspicious there
Of winds, nor fearing on the solid earth
To buffet with the blast, the troops are seized
With ocean terrors; for the moving sands,
On the dry shore, are swept in wilder whirl,
By violent gusts, than quicksands of the deep.
The whirlwind of the South descends on earth
With more destructive ravage, nor its force
Is broke by mountains of opposing ridge;
Nor, by a craggy soil withstood, it spends
Its cloudless whirls in air; nor yet on woods
It rushes down, and in its vortex sweeps
Th' uprooted oaks of ages, and exhausts
Its wearied fury. All is here a plain
Open and waste. The hurricane abroad
Bursts with free scope, and pours his airy rage.
Th' impetuous gust in spiral-eddy wreaths
Whirls the dry dust, and lifts a cloud of sand,
Cloud without shower. The plains are swept
aloft,
And hang in air, suspended without fall:
While Nasamon beholds its wretched realms,
And shatter'd cabins, wandering on the winds.
Snatch'd from the reedy huts of Garamus,
The roofs fly upward. Not to greater height
The hurrying flame its scatter'd fragments
wafts.

High as the smoke of conflagration soars,
And blots the light of day, so rolls the dust
Of whirlwind sand, and fills the darken'd air.
Then too, more vehement than wont, the drift
Bears on the Roman bands. The soldier seeks
In vain his footing, and unstable reels:
The sands he treads from underneath his feet
Are snatch'd, and whirl'd away. If firm the
frame

Of Afric, and of hard compacted weight;
 If her loose soil were rock, and scoop'd in
 caves,
 Where the pent blast might with resistance
 strive,
 Earth would itself be shook, and the round
 globe
 Thrust from its seat. But, lightly lifted, float
 The changing sands; acquire a permanence
 From never-resting motion, and endure
 By yielding to the shock: the depth of earth
 Stands, while the surface flies. The sudden
 gust
 Whirls with impetuous stroke the helms, and
 shields,
 And spears of warriors; and, unceasingly,
 Hurries along the void immense of heaven.
 Perchance, to some far-distant region borne,
 The flight of weapons fell, and men conceiv'd
 A prodigy; the trembling nations gazed
 At armour, drop'd from heaven, and deem'd
 those swords
 Snatch'd by the whirlwind from a human
 grasp,
 Were by the angry Gods sent down to earth.
 To Numa thus, the sacrificing king,
 Fell the curved shields, which, on their shoulders
 hung,
 The chosen band in Salian dances shake;
 And haply then, the whirlwinds of the North
 Had spoil'd some distant tribes, and borne
 through air
 The sacred shields. While thus the eddy blast
 Swept o'er the world of sand, the soldiery
 Stoop'd prostrate; fearing to be snatch'd
 in air,
 Wrap'd close their mantles, or their grappling
 hands
 Plunged in the soil; nor, by their weight
 alone,
 But by convulsive strength they press'd the
 ground.
 Nor so, immovable: th' o'er-rushing wind
 Heap'd high the sands, and buried them in
 earth.
 Scarce could the struggling soldier lift his
 limbs,
 But clung within th' accumulated dust
 The drifted mound, enormous, binds them in,
 And, motionless, they see the rising earth
 Enclose them, where they stand. Upon its
 blast
 The whirlwind scatter'd stones, from crashing
 walls
 Rent, and to distant space cast wide in air,
 With wonderous chance of havoc; they beheld
 The ruins of invisible abodes:
 And now all track is whelm'd from sight; nor
 aught
 Marks their land-course, save, as in middle
 sea,
 The stellar fires of ether. By the stars
 They trace their way: though not th' horizon's
 line,
 That skirts the Lybian tract, gives each
 known star

To their exploring gaze; for many now
 Sinks shrouded by the shelving bend of earth.
 But when the heat had clear'd the troubled
 air,
 Swept by the cloudy whirlwind, and the day
 Flamed forth, the sweat flow'd down from all
 their limbs:
 Their lips were parch'd with thirst. At
 length a spring,
 Of scant and niggard rill, is seen afar.
 A soldier snatch'd the oozing wave, scarce
 drain'd
 From choking sand, and pour'd the filter'd
 drops
 In the broad concave of his helm; then
 stretch'd
 His arm, and to their chieftain raised the
 draught.
 The jaws of all were clogg'd with smearing
 dust:
 Their chief, who held these droppings of a rill,
 Was view'd with envy. "Soldier!" Cato
 cried,
 "Think'st thou that I alone, of all these bands,
 Am recreant and degenerate? seems thy chief
 So soft of nature, fainting at the stroke
 Of the first heat? How far more worthy he
 To feel th' inflicted sun, who singly drinks,
 While a whole people thirst!" Indignant then
 He dash'd the helmet down; and so sufficed
 The thirsting thousands with the squander'd
 wave.

JUVENAL.

Juvenal is of the school of Persius. He is more diffuse, and declamatory than his master, but with no abatement of strength. His luxuriancy is in fruit, not leaves: the exuberance of a mind teeming with thought, and fertile in images. His vehemence is ever on the wing, and his ardour never exhausts itself. His moral reflections, independently of their sublimity, are strikingly just and profound, and often rise above the level of mere philosophy. Yet his general usefulness, as a satirist, is limited by the grossness of his indelicacy, which is at least equal to the acerbity of his invective. No good can possibly arise from familiarizing the fancy with pictures of pollution, on which the impure imagination will dwell with a sensation very opposite to that of disgust; and which the mind that is pure cannot contemplate without losing some portion of its innocent simplicity.

EMPTINESS OF AMBITION.

THE spoils of war: a coat of mail, fix'd high
 On trophied trunk, in emblem'd victory;
 A dangling beaver from its helmet cleft;
 A chariot's shiver'd beam; a pendant rest
 From boarded galley; and the captive show'd
 On the triumphal arch in imaged stone;
 Behold

Behold the sum of grandeur and of bliss!—
Greek, Roman, and Barbarian, aim at this.
Hence the hot toil and hair-breadth peril
came,

For less the thirst of virtue than of fame.
Who clasps mere naked virtue in his arms?
Strip off the tinsel, she no longer charms.
Yet has the glory of some few great names
Enwrapt our country in destroying flames:
This thirst of praise and chissel'd titles, read
On stones that guard the ashes of the dead.
But a wild fig-tree's wayward growth may
tear

The rifted tomb, and shake the stones in air:
Since sepulchres a human fate obey,
And vaults, that shrine the dead, themselves
decay.

Try in the balance Hannibal: adjust
The scales: how many pounds weighs this
big hero's dust?

This—this is he whom Afric would, in vain,
Coop 'twixt the tepid Nile and Moorish main:
Swarth Æthiop tribes his yoke of empire
bore,

And towery elephants bow'd down before.
Spain crouches as his vassal; at a bound
He high o'erleaps the Pyrenæan's mound:
Nature with Alps and snows the pass defends;
Through juice-corroded rocks a way he rends,
And strides on Italy: yet nought is won;
He throws his glance beyond; "yet nought
is done;

Till at Rome's gates the Punic soldier beats,
And plants my standard in her very streets."
Oh! how, in painting, would that form en-
chant!

That blinking hero on an elephant!
What is his end? oh godlike glory! say—
He flies in rout; in exile steals away:
A great and gazed-at suppliant, lo! he takes
His out-door station, till a monarch wakes.
Nor swords, nor stones, nor arrows gave the
wound,

And crush'd the soul, that shook the world
around;
What mighty means the blood-atonement
bring?

Cannæ's avenger lurks within a ring.
Go! madman, scour the Alps, in glory's
dream;

A tale for boys, and a declaimer's theme!
Lo! Pella's youth was cabin'd, cribb'd,
confined

Within one world, too narrow for his mind:
Restless he turn'd in feverous discontent
As if by Gyara's rocks, or scant Seriphum
pent;

But brick-wall'd Babylon gave ample room;
Content he stretched him in a catacomb:
Death, death alone, the conscious truth attests,
What dwarfish frame this swelling soul in-
vests.

They tell of Athos' mountain sail'd with
ships;
Those bold historic lies from Græcian lips:
Of ocean bridged across with paving keels,
And harden'd waves o'erpass with chariot-
wheels;

We pin our faith on rivers deep that shrank,
And floods which, at a meal, the Median
drank;

And all that marvel-mongering poet sings,
That maudlin swan, who bathed in wine his
wings.

Say how from Salamis this Sultan pass'd
Who lash'd the Eastern and the Western
blast;

Stripes, which they knew not in th' Æolian
cave:

He, who with fetters bound th' earth-shaking
wave,

And, in his mercy only, spared to brand?—
What! crouch'd a god, like Neptune, to his
hand?

Then say, how pass'd he back?—behold him
row

One bark, through bloody waves, with corse-
choked prow:

Such is the glorious fame for which we sigh,
And such ambition's curse, and penalty.

LEGITIMATE OBJECTS OF HUMAN
WISHES.

SHALL man then nothing wish? advised by me,
Let the good gods, themselves, consult for
thee:

They what is useful, what expedient, know;
And for the pleasant, will the fit bestow.
Heaven loves us better than ourselves we
love;

Our passions us with headstrong impulse move,
And blind desire: inflamed we pant to wed,
And hope for pledges from the fruitful bed:
But by the gods, in foresight clear, are seen,
What the wish'd wife and hoped-for son had
been.

Yet, that some rites of worship may be thine,
Some altar-offerings vow'd at holy shrine,
For a sane mind in a sane body pray;
A soul that looks on death without dismay;
That firm prepares the course of life to run,
And thanks kind Nature, when the race is
done:

A soul that strenuous toils could never tire;
From anger calm; superior to desire:
That rather would th' Herculean labours prove
Than banquets, beds of down, and melting
sloth of love.

I show thee that which needs not prayer to
gain;

Which, of thyself, thou surely may'st obtain:
The path of tranquil life through virtue lies;
With prudence, thou hast all the Deities:
'Tis we, oh Fortune! who thy power have
given;

Our weak desires have set thy throne in
heaven.

CLAUDIAN.

THE OLD MAN OF VERONA.

BLEST is the man who, in his father's fields,
Has past an age of quiet. The same roof,
That screen'd his cradle, yields a shelter now
To his grey hairs. He leans upon a staff,
Where, as a child, he crept along the ground;
And, in one cottage, he has number'd o'er

A length of years. Him Fortune has not
drawn
Into her whirl of strange vicissitudes;
Nor has he drunk, with ever-changing home,
From unknown rivers. Never on the deep,
A merchant, has he trembled at the storm;
Nor, as a soldier, started at the blare
Of trumpets; nor endured the noisy strife
Of the hoarse-clamouring bar: of the great
world

Simply unconscious. To the neighbouring
town

A stranger, he enjoys the free expanse
Of open heaven. The old man marks his year,
Not by the names of Consuls, but computes
Time by his various crops: by apples notes
The autumn; by the blooming flower the
spring.

From the same field he sees his daily sun
Go down, and lift again its reddening orb;
And, by his own contracted universe,
The rustic measures the vast light of day.
He well remembers that broad massive oak,
An acorn; and has seen the grove grow old,
Coeval with himself. Verona seems
To him more distant than the swarthy Ind:
He deems the lake Benacus like the shores
Of the red gulph. But his a vigour hale,
And unabated: he has now outlived
Three ages: though a grandsire, green in
years,

With firm and sinewy arms. The traveller
May roam to farthest Spain: he more has
known

Of earthly space; the old man more of life.

SERMONS

By the late

REV. WALTER BLAKE KIRWAN,

DEAN OF KILLALA.

Octavo, 15s.

[We learn from the prefixed sketch of the life and character of this justly-renowned preacher, that he was descended from an ancient and respectable Roman Catholic family, and born in Galway about the year 1754; and that he was sent in early youth to the college of English Jesuits at St. Omers, in whose classic shades, as he often declared, he imbibed the noble ambition of benefiting mankind.

In the year 1787, resolved to conform to the established religion, a determination which was greatly promoted by the conviction (as he himself declared) that he should thus obtain more extensive opportunities of doing good. He was, in consequence, introduced by the Rev. Dr. Hastings, Archdeacon of Dublin, to his first Protestant congregation in St. Peter's Church, where he preached on the 24th of June in that year.

For some time after his conformity, he preached every Sunday in St. Peter's Church, and the collections for the poor, on every occasion, rose four or five-fold above their usual amount. Before the expiration of his first year, he was wholly reserved for the distinguished and difficult task of preaching charity sermons; and, on the 5th of November, 1788, the governors of the general daily schools of several parishes entered into a resolution,—“That, from the effects which the discourses of the Rev. Walter Blake Kirwan, from the pulpit, have had, his officiating in the metropolis was considered a peculiar national advantage, and that vestries should be called to consider the most effectual method to secure to the city an instrument, under Providence, of so much public benefit.”

In the same year he was preferred, by the Archbishop of Dublin, to the prebend of Howth, and in the next, to the parish of St. Nicholas-Without, the joint income of which amounted to about 400l. a-year.

These were his only church-preferences, until the year 1800, when the late Marquis Cornwallis, then lord-lieutenant, preferred him to the deanery of Killala, worth about 400l. a-year, at which time he resigned the prebend of Howth.

His ardour was not abated by promotion, nor his meekness corrupted by admiration; though, whenever he preached, such multitudes assembled, that it was necessary to defend the entrance of the church by guards and palisadoes. He was presented with addresses and pieces of plate from every parish, and the freedom of various corporations; his portrait was painted and engraved by the most eminent artists; and (what was infinitely more grateful to his feelings) the collections at his sermons far exceeded any that ever were known in a country distinguished for unmeasured benevolence. Even in times of public calamity and distress, his irresistible powers of persuasion repeatedly produced contributions exceeding a thousand or twelve hundred pounds at a sermon; and his hearers, not content with emptying their purses into the plate, sometimes threw in jewels or watches, as earnest of further benefactions.

On the 22d of September, 1798, Mr. Kirwan married Wilhelmina Richards, youngest daughter of Goddard Richards, esq. late of Grange, in the county of Wexford, with whom he lived in uninterrupted harmony and happiness: his domestic virtues exemplified his public precepts; and his whole conduct was the more conspicuous for integrity, kindness, and generosity, as those qualities

lities have been supposed incompatible with a monastic education.

But the period rapidly approached when the afflicted were to deplore their ablest advocate; and his unsparing exertions, in behalf of helpless innocence and want, were to receive their ultimate reward. Exhausted by the fatigues of his mission, this excellent man died, with signal piety and resignation, at his house at Mount-Pleasant, near Dublin, on the 27th of October, 1805. His funeral was attended to his own church of St. Nicholas-Without, by the children of all the parish-schools in Dublin, and his pall was borne by six gentlemen of the first distinction.

His widow was left with two sons and two daughters, with so slender a provision that they must have pined in obscurity and indigence, had not his Majesty been graciously pleased to grant her a pension of 300*l.* a-year for her life, with the reversion to her daughters. But for the sons of him who fell a victim to his zeal in the cause of universal benevolence, no provision whatever has hitherto been made.

May these sermons, which are printed for their benefit, enable their surviving parent to give them such an education as becomes the memory of their revered father; to whom the fatherless and the widow for so many years owed their comforts, and, almost, their existence!

The specimens which follow prove that Mr. KIRWAN was not over-estimated by his warm-hearted countrymen, and that his powers of eloquence exceed any previous examples which are to be found in our language.]

HAPPINESS.

THE possession of happiness is the principle and end of all our actions and passions, our pleasures and our pains. The common or universal centre to which all animated nature is hurried by rapid and irresistible movement. Men are united in society only to procure it. The arts and sciences have been invented only to perfect it. All states and professions are so many channels in which it is sought. The great and mean, rich and poor, infancy and age, passions and talents, virtues and vices, pleasures and toils, are all engaged in the unremitting pursuit of it. In a word, from the people that inhabit the most civilised cities, to the savage that prowls in the bosom of the wilderness; from the throne of the monarch to the hut of the most abject peasant, the world is in labour to bring forth true peace and tranquillity of soul.

CHARACTER OF A MISER.

When the light of benevolence is entirely put out, man is reduced to that state of existence, which is disavowed by nature, and abhorred of God! Let one suppose him, I say, but once radically divested of all generous feelings, and entirely involved in himself; it will be impossible to say what deeds of shame and horror he will not readily commit: in the balance of his perverted judgment, honor, gratitude, friendship, religion, yea, even natural affection, will all be outweighed by interest. The maxim of the Roman satirist will be his rule of life, "money at any rate." If the plain and beaten paths of the world, diligence and frugality, will conduct him to that end, it is well: but, if not, rather than fail of his object, I will be bold to say, he will plunge, without scruple or remorse, into the most serpentine labyrinths of fraud and iniquity. Whilst his schemes are unaccomplished, fretfulness and discontent will lower on his brow; when favourable, and even most prosperous, his unslaked and unsatisfied soul still thirsts for more. As he is insensible to the calamities of his fellow creatures, so the greatest torment he can experience is an application to his charity and compassion. Should he stumble, like the Levite, on some spectacle of woe, he will, like the Levite, hasten to the other side of the way, resist the finest movements of nature, and cling to the demon of inhumanity, as the guardian angel of his happiness. Suppose him, however, under the accidental necessity of listening to the petition of misery; he will endeavour to beat down the evidence of the case by the meanest shifts and evasions; or will cry aloud, as the brutal and insensible Nabal did to the hungry soldiers of David, "Why should I be such a fool, as to give my flesh which I have prepared for my shearers, to men that I know not from whence they be?" But, admitting that a remnant of shame, for example, in the face of a congregation like this, may goad him for once to an act of beneficence, so mean and inconsiderable, so unworthy of the great concern would it probably be, that the idol of his soul would appear more distinctly in the very relief he administers, than in the barbarous insensibility which habitually withholds

holds it. Merciful and eternal God! what a passion! And how much ought the power and fascination of that object to be dreaded which can turn the human heart into such a pathless and irreclaimable desert. Irreclaimable, I say; for men inflamed with any other passion, even voluptuousness, the most impure and inveterate, are sometimes enlightened and reformed by the ministry of religion, or the sober and deliberate judgment of manhood and experience. But who will say that such a wretch as I have described, in the extremity of selfishness, was ever corrected by any ordinary resource or expedient? Who will say that he is at any time vulnerable by reproach, or, I had almost added, even convertible by grace! No; through every stage and revolution of life he remains invariably the same: or if any difference, it is only this, that as he advances into the shade of a long evening, he clings closer and closer to the object of his idolatry: and while every other passion lies dead and blasted in his heart, his desire for more pelf increases with renewed eagerness, and he holds by a sinking world with an agonising grasp, till he drops into the earth with the increased curses of wretchedness on his head, without the tribute of a tear from child or parent, or any inscription on his memory; but that he lived to counteract the distributive justice of Providence, and died without hope or title to a blessed immortality. "Seek not your own, but every man another's wealth."

OBLIGATION OF CHARITY.

But, I may be told, that, notwithstanding the excesses I complain of, mercy is often remembered. Yes, I confess it: and how should it not be remembered? all human beings occasionally remember mercy; the miser alone excepted. It is the doctrine of all ages and people: in the darkest periods of human reason, when vice the most atrocious was seated upon altars, and honoured by the incense of nations, sensibility to distress remained a sacred, though solitary, virtue, amidst the prevailing corruptions of the world. In regions bound in by eternal frost, uncivilized and almost inaccessible, where element and sterility combine to render subsistence precarious, and seem to shut up the heart, relief is extended to those whom age or infirmity renders unable

to toil. Why then should we talk of occasionally obeying a sentiment which, in the children of nature, is a burning and invariable instinct? Were I to tell the wildest barbarian that our bread is often withheld from the hungry; that some of us are clothed in soft raiment, and wallow in all the enjoyments of luxury and ease, while multitudes are suffered to perish from the absolute want of aliment; while poverty stalks round us ravenous and despairing; while mothers almost devour their young, and orphans dispute offals with the brutes; all barbarous and uncivilized as we call him, I should fill his honest heart with astonishment and horror! And yet we flatter ourselves we are merciful! Oh, my friends, we are too apt to give ourselves credit for the practice of a virtue, of which, in fact, we as yet know little but the name. I am positive when I say this; what pleasure can I have in uttering any thing like reproach? what object in view, but the vindication of truth, and the good of the cause with which you yourselves have entrusted me? I am, in fact, but pleading your own persons against your own passions. Lay then your hands honestly on your hearts, and decide the question yourselves; I desire no other umpire between us. Look into the divine volume of our law; mark the rule of mercy it lays down, and confess the immensity of our distance from it. What does it declare us to be, but trustees to the estate? Does it not adjudge every shilling we can spare from the reasonable support of our stations, to the widow and the orphan, or charge us with their blood? The observation, you may tell me, is trite; but is it the less awful for being trite? Is our security the greater, because every effort of the human mind, and every pulse of zeal have long been exhausted to warn us of our danger? Is it possible to believe in future retribution, and not to know some uneasy moments on this head? Is it possible then, that rational and thinking beings must not occasionally tremble at the uncertainty of life, and certainty of judgment? How many might I mention, in the very first class of our community, who have passed to their account since I last met you in the cause of these children in the course of a little year; some of whom, I could mention several,

ral, who heard me on that day, and, for aught I know, with the same tranquillity and indifference, or the same assurance of many years, that you may now! They are gone; and whatever their eternal destiny may be, this is certain, that it may be ours to consider the wealth of worlds as a happy exchange for one hour of that time which is still within our power. Tell me, is there a single Christian before me, who, if the offer were made him at this moment, would be satisfied to stake his salvation on the question of his charity? Oh not one! and yet our consciences are at rest; we flatter ourselves we are merciful. Heavens! if there be any just ground for such a thought, why has it become necessary to prostitute, in some degree, the most sacred of all functions for the purpose of moving and inspiring us to the practice of this virtue? Why has the pulpit been obliged to descend to the very language of flattery, in order to extort from your vanity what it is hopeless of obtaining from a principle of religion? Why is it become necessary to hold out, on almost every occasion of this nature, the too dangerous doctrine, "that charity covereth a multitude of sins;" and thus run the hazard of misleading you on the subject of your own salvation, in order to force you to become the instrument of salvation to others? Why are we obliged to use the arts and colouring of profane eloquence to make appeals to your passions? To search and probe the great body of human misery to the bone? To bring it, I may say, before your hearts, naked and expiring, quivering and disjointed? To expose all its miseries and horrors? To mingle our own tears with the tears of the unhappy objects that invoke us? And, after all, why do we often fail? Yes, most deplorably fail? Why does misery often perish in the horrors of famine? or, what is infinitely worse, shoot up in swarms of infamy and guilt?

CHARACTER OF AN HOSPITAL.

Healing diseases, giving sight to the blind? almost animation to the grave? binding up every wound, meeting every sad and cruel disaster? and, like the God it represents, dismissing in peace to the bosom of transported families, the staff of their existence, and source of all their joys and comforts. Is it to repeat, that, in this

awful repository of divine visitation, multiplied cases every hour occur, that no human feeling can witness without horror; which are treated with extraordinary skill; nursed with extraordinary tenderness; soothed under the torments of frightful operations by the lips of constitutional humanity; and that for every example of fatality that occurs, there are thousands of almost miraculous recoveries? Is it to repeat the noble and disinterested assiduity of both faculties, who fly at all hours, by night and by day, at the call of their afflicted fellow-creatures, without fee or reward, and often generously supply aid and comforts from their private resources, which the means of this institution are inadequate to afford? Is it to repeat, that this godlike temple of life and health is infinite in its grasp of salvation, taking in the wide range of disease and casualty, in this extensive county, and happily rearing its head in a quarter of the metropolis, where the existence of misery is as vast as it is lamentable, and almost every lurking place offers hourly, in one way or another, some spectacle to its mercy? Is it, in fine, to repeat that the number it annually succours, or more properly saves, stands at more than fifteen thousand! and, of course, when we look at the period of its existence, which is more than fifty years, must nearly exceed all credibility. These are the merits of this institution.

PERORATION OF A CHARITY SERMON.

The impoverished and sequestered parts of the city would present more than the bloody and terrific image of a neglected field of battle: the moans of the expiring, the agonies of the maimed and mutilated, and your living brethren putrifying unto death, in the ray of that sun that lights you every day, to happiness and enjoyment. Do you think I frame this as the mere language of appeal to your feelings? No, as God liveth, I mean no more than the simple exposition of a case, which I conceive to be as much beyond description, as it would be unavoidable. But it is impossible for me to produce suitable impressions. It is the misfortune of the ministry, to want on these occasions what nothing can supply, an appeal to the living evidence. It would be necessary to transport an assembly of this nature to the retreats of suffering humanity.

humanity. It is there that a preacher might be easily eloquent, and sure to impress. It is there that, free from all restraint, without fear of being charged with exaggeration, he might make you behold, in all its dreadful variety, the consequence of wanting, or not sufficiently supporting, an institution of this nature. There the first movement of our souls would be fixed in astonishment; to this would succeed the uplifted eye of ardent thanksgiving for the advantages of our condition; to this the luxurious sensation of ineffable pity: to this, not the cold and hesitating calculation, what we shall bestow, but the rapid and undeliberating profusion of mercy. We would retire, my brethren, tortured, happy, improved for ever. All calamity whatever, when retired from observation, is doubly affecting. We conceive a kind of mitigation attached even to the fruitless, God help you, of a gaping world; but in the dreary nakedness of the dismal recess, every dire visitation wears a face of sublime horror. Though he, who on the unmade bed of torture, whether from disease or accident, languishes and perishes unassisted and unknown, be eminently wretched; yet the richest, with all the aids they can receive from the skill of an attentive faculty, and the countless comforts which affluence can supply, still experience the extremities of disease to be intolerable, and often look to death as a blessing. Great God! what then must the case be, where man, in the same situation, seems equally abandoned by heaven and earth? where famine is the consequence of arrested toil? where families, in consternation, look round, without hope or prospect of relief? where the very covering of the dying victim is often sent by his afflicted heart to support their existence? where the very source of tears is dried up? where deep despair, extorting the language of imprecation against Providence, presents the horrible combat between religion and nature? O Charity! thou principle of great souls! how glorious are thy works! Thou createst a new world in the moral and physical order. Thou preventest a deluge of indigence! Thou preventest a deluge of vice! Thou throwest an immortal guard round virgin purity! Thou recallest not the dead, but thou givest

life, as on this day, life and health to the diseased and the expiring! And Oh! how extraordinary, my brethren, is the goodness of God, to have attached merit to a virtue, which carries with it here below, around us, and within us, its own inexpressible reward!

I am, therefore, without fear. I look to you, my brethren, with immoveable confidence. Support your convictions, for convinced you are, of the unspeakable merits of the case. I ask no more. To the humblest, the least-gifted individual in this place, I look, as well as to the most prosperous, for a double effort on this day. Bleeding tender humanity is confined to no order. Many a man, as I once before said, standing in the aisle of the church, unnoticed and unknown, has given evidence of this truth, that will shine in the book of life for ever. Often is a diamond of the purest water covered with an encrustation of the coarsest matter. Often have the burning and ungovernable feelings of compassion even mastered the instinct of self-preservation;—witness the widow of Zarepta, from whom the prophet of the Lord was directed to seek shelter and support, in a season of famine; from her whose whole property, under the sun, was “an handful of meal in a barrel, and a drop of oil in a cruise,” and yet to him, at the first aspect of his extraordinary misery, did she sacrifice, without a moment’s hesitation, the last morsel of herself and child. Let a spark of this divine impulse be known in this case to all around me; and all shall find, like her, a tender and attentive Providence watching over their concerns; covering them, as it did the fleece of Gideon, with the dew of heaven, and giving to each an increase of an hundred fold.

EDUCATION OF FEMALES.

The personal happiness and salvation of these children, is the least of the benefits that arise from your present bounty. You plant, in their education, the oak, round which the ivy twines and aspires; that is, the example which irresistibly attracts, nay, commands, in the great cause of virtue and religion. There is a fervor in the soil of a female heart, which never misses sending up what it receives, be the culture ever so scanty; when abundant, the return is invariably

riably glorious. Wonderful, that a creature naturally so defenceless, so weak in conformation, so timid in her ways, so unaspiring in her pursuits, so humble in her destination; born, I may say, to serve; should yet, under certain circumstances, possess an empire that nothing can resist, that renders her very silence eloquence, her entreaties law; nay, her presence alone superior to the most awful considerations, in the control of licentiousness and vice. Yet so it is, such has universal experience declared to be the ascendancy of virtue and religion in woman.

If men would only reflect on what they lose, in the neglected cultivation of the female intellect, it is impossible, methinks, but they should determine on more attention to a circumstance so capable of affording the most delightful resource in all intervals of duty or business. The largest portion of our days is passed in the society of women; to what a melancholy condition therefore must a man be reduced, if either constrained to lay the language of his reason aside, or feed on himself in solitary rumination!

If the sex, in their intercourse, are of the highest importance to the moral and religious state of society, they are still more so in their domestic relations. What a public blessing, what an instrument of the most exalted good, is a virtuous Christian mother? Confined by duty and inclination within the walls of her own house, every hour of her life becomes an hour of instruction; every feature of her conduct a transplanted virtue. Methinks I behold her encircled by her beloved charge, like a being more than human, to which every mind is bent, and every eye directed; the eager simplicity of infancy inhaling from her lips the sacred truths of religion, in adapted phrase and familiar story; the whole rule of their moral and religious duties simplified for easier infusion. The countenance of this fond and anxious parent all beaming with delight and love, and her eye raised occasionally to heaven in fervent supplication for a blessing on her work. O what a glorious part does such a woman act on the great theatre of humanity, and how much is the mortal to be pitied, who is not struck

with the image of such excellence! When I look to its consequences, direct and remote, I see the plants she has raised and cultivated spreading through the community with the richest increase of fruit; I see her diffusing happiness and virtue through a great portion of the human race. I can fancy generations yet unborn, rising to prove and to hail her worth, and I adore that God who can destine a single human creature to be the stem of such extended and incalculable benefit to the world.

In the character of wife we find a virtuous woman equally existing for the happiest purposes. Nothing is more true than what the Apostle has asserted, that a Christian wife is the salvation of her husband. For surely if any thing can have power to wean a man from evil, it is the living image of all that is perfect, constantly before his eyes, in the person whom, next to God, he is forced to reverence and respect; and who, next to God, he must be assured, has his present and future felicity most at heart; who joins to the influence of her example, the most assiduous attention to please; who knows, from the experience of every hour, where his errors and vices may be assailed with any prospect of success; who is instructed, by the close study of his disposition, when to speak, and when to be silent; who watches and distinguishes that gleam of reflection which no eye can perceive but her own; who can fascinate by the mildness and humility of her manner, at the moment she expostulates and reproves; who receives him with smiles and kindness, even when conscience smites him the most with a sense of his neglect and unworthiness; who has always a resource at hand in his difficulties, and tender apologies to relieve him from himself; and a gracious presentiment ever on her lips, that the day will come, when he will know how to value the advantages of good conduct, and the unruffled serenity of virtue. Yes, my brethren, the ministry of such a woman is daily found to work the reformation of our sex, when all other resources fail; when neither misfortune, or shame, or the counsels of friendship, or the considerations of Hell or Heaven, have any more effect than the whistling of the elements.

ABUSES OF TRUE CHRISTIANITY.

How perfective of human nature and human happiness, is that system which, even in the face of an enemy, observes a brother; which is one continued line of exhortation to unbounded benevolence, and whose illustrious founder has declared, that its professors should be known and immortalized by that one sentiment alone; thus pointing out the means of beginning our heaven on earth, and antedating here below the joys and tranquillity of the blessed!

And yet it is horrible to reflect, that instead of answering that happy end, it has, by a strange and unnatural perversion of things, become itself, from the day on which Constantine ascended the throne of the Cæsars, to that in which we live and breathe, the very source of implacable jars, and led to scenes at which every nerve of humanity trembles; and this merely to vindicate and do honour (an imagination which the devil alone could suggest) to particular tenets of faith! Yes! Christians retaliating on each other by turns, every human calamity, pillaging towns, depopulating happy and fertile countries, massacring, with unsparing rage, even the helpless infant, and the tender sex, without any motive, without any spur, but miserable and furious attachment to speculations undeterminable without a new revelation from heaven, and yet which each were blind enough to conceive as essential constituents of Christianity.

I know nothing essential to the belief of a Christian but this,—belief in the being, attributes, government, trinity and unity, of God; that he is the author of all nature, and fountain of all our blessings; that his providence is universal as the light; that we are responsible creatures, destined for a state of felicity or misery everlasting; that righteousness of course is indispensable to our salvation; that the Holy Spirit assists our infirmity; that Jesus Christ is our redeemer, mediator, advocate, and judge; and that, under the title of his infinite merits, we are all pursuing the same destination and felicity.

Every other point is, comparatively, frivolous and indifferent, and which ever we embrace or reject, according to the result of our inquiry and judg-

ment, can neither add to or diminish our right to the name of a Christian, or any way affect our pretensions to the favour of God. And, what good has ever arisen from annexing imaginary importance to any thing in which all Christians are not agreed? We are sure of the bloody and proscribing spirit which such a libel on right reason and true religion has engendered, sure of the horrid and unparalleled evils it has produced! But where are the benefits? Has it cast one feather into the scale of human virtue or human happiness? Has it been found that any one denomination of Christians has universally carried the palm of uprightness and pure morality? Is it not clear that there are, and ever have been, examples of eminent worth and eminent depravity in all?

Perish then the principle that opposes the natural tendency of man to man, and has deluged the old and the new world with crimes and calamities. I draw a veil over our own experience; it is, alas, too easy at this day, even with the most benevolent intention of healing and doing good, to incur the charge of the very principle I have now deplored and condemned. For myself I will say, for you my hearers, for the truly enlightened of every sect, that I trust there lives not one spark of it in any corner of our souls; and that there is not any human creature in the wide lap of earth, in whose face we should not read the clearest title to our best love and service.

Still never, I do not hesitate to assert it, did the day exist, when, for the honour of a divine religion, and the welfare of human creatures, it was more necessary to unite in tearing up the old and baneful root of bitterness, and impressing deeply on the minds of the ignorant, the great command of love, peace, and union, between all Christians and all men.

Happy had it been for this small but charming portion of the earth, had care been early taken, to direct the attention of a naturally open, generous, and warm-hearted race, as the people of this country have been justly and emphatically called, not to the miserable jealousy of matters that are the discovery of man, but to the great social duties of that system which is the revelation of God.

A good

A good and benevolent life is the sum and substance of it; and the only right preparation we can make for an happy entrance into that blessed region, where sin and sorrow, strife and discord, shall never enter. And much more useful and glorious would I deem it to utter even one clumsy sentence in support of that vital object, than be the author of all the musty folios the groaning shelves of polemic divinity ever bore.

"A new command I give unto you that you love one another."

I have endeavoured to shew the influence this divine precept ought to have in conciliating Christians of every religious communion. It remains to consider it as the most powerful incentive to mercy. To commiserate and relieve the miserable is the law of reason and nature, as well as the result of divine and benevolent doctrine. Man, formed to the resemblance of the Deity, was originally placed on this earth to enjoy and divide its benefits with equal wants and equal rights to the same resources.

The universe was a vast temple, in which the great Author of nature struck the eyes of his creatures under the symbols of various beneficence. A sense of gratitude erected altars, but the blood of animals stained them not; the offering was more noble, that of virtuous and acknowledging hearts.

But this happy state was soon overturned by the violence of human passions. It was incompatible with that growing propensity to injustice, that followed the disorder of our nature; the wants of imagination gave rise to immensity of desires. Force, goaded and instructed by selfishness, produced the crime of usurpation; the feeble were oppressed, and a large portion of mankind handed over to the care of a just and merciful Providence. Here have we, my brethren, if I may use the expression, the ancestry of human misery, and the foundation of that principle which the world knows by the name of Humanity; a principle resting on the eternal law of reason and justice.

WEALTH.

Great God! what is there to be envied in wealth, if it be not the power to pour it out on such a cause!

If, to pour it out in such a cause, be not the first of human enjoyments. Great wealth is often the lot of the vilest of mankind, as well as yours. It cannot, in itself, render any man truly respected, either alive or dead. It confers not one solitary talent, one solitary virtue. It is unequal to remove one pang from the heart; one ache from the tooth. It may roll through the public ways in gaudiest magnificence, yet sink at the same moment, under the collected scorn of beholders. The most studied, most luxurious gratifications it can purchase are rapid, and quickly forgotten, and in many, out of the four-and-twenty hours that constitute the day, namely, the hours of repose, place its possessor on a level with the most destitute of mortals. It leaves us at the approach of the grave. We view it on the bed of death with frozen indifference, or fruitless avidity; our heirs too often pant for our expiring breath, and, naked, we pass to the embrace of corruption, either woeful victims of perverted gifts, or confident aspirers to the promised and everlasting reward of the benevolent. Now, truly, my brethren, the prophet saith, "there is little judgment in the goings of man." Imagination, that able impostor, walks him, in search of happiness, from chimera to chimera; the experience of every hour should cure his delusion; his delusion remains, in spite of experience: born to ambition, and the possession of infinite good, all his views, all his efforts are yet obstinately directed to deck the little span that intervenes between his cradle and his grave. Sorrow and care, and miserable agitation, become the portion of his days on earth, merely to die overwhelmed with riches, or surrounded with splendor.

VICISSITUDE OF HUMAN AFFAIRS.

Let it be remembered, however, and here I resume my subject, that whatever our habits or opinions of divine placability may be, if the religion we profess be from God, it lies not with man to alter or modify an iota of its letter. Every thing human admits of change and vicissitude; states and empires, arts and sciences, customs and manners, laws and governments, feel, without ceasing, this inevitable principle acting upon them. God, from the throne of his immutability,

tability, sports with all the works and enterprises of man; and, willing to shew us the little value we should set on things perishable, has decreed that there should be nothing permanent on the face of the earth, but the very vicissitude that marks and agitates it.

My brethren, the true source of all our delusion is a false and deceitful security of life. Thousands pass their accounts around us and we are not instructed; some are struck in our very arms: our parents, our children, our friends, and yet we stand as if we had shot into the earth an eternal root. Even the most sudden transitions from life to dust, produce but a momentary impression on the dust that breathes. No examples, however awful, sink into the heart. Every instant we see health, youth, beauty, titles, reputation, and fortune, disappear like a flash. Still do we pass gaily on, in the broad and flowery way, the same busy, thoughtless, and irreclaimable beings, panting for every pleasure as before, thirsting for riches and pre-eminence; rushing on the melancholy ruins of one another; intriguing for the employments of those whose ashes are scarce cold; nay often, I fear, keeping an eye on the very expiring, with the infamous view of seizing the earliest moment to solicit their spoils.

Great God! as if the all-devouring tomb, instead of solemnly pronouncing on the vanity of all human pursuits, on the contrary, emitted sparks to rekindle all our attachment to a perishable world! Let me suppose, my brethren, that the number of man's days were inscribed on his brow! Is it not clear that an awful certainty of that nature must necessarily beget the most profound and operative reflection? Would it be possible to banish, even for a moment, the fatal term from his reflection? The nearer he approached it, what an increase of alarm? What an increase of light on the folly of every thing but immortal good! Would all his views and aspirings be confined, as they now are, to the little span that intervenes between his cradle and his grave; and care, and anxiety, and miserable agitation be his lot, merely to die overwhelmed with riches, and blazing with honours.

But if no danger is to be appre-

hended while the thunder of heaven rolls at a distance, believe me, when it collects over our heads, we may be fatally convinced, that a well-spent life is the only conductor that can avert the bolt. Let us reflect, that time waits for no man. Sleeping or waking, our days are on the wing. If we look to those that are past, they are but as a point. When I compare the present aspect of this city with that which it exhibited within the short space of my own residence, what does the result present, but the most melancholy proof of human instability? New characters in every scene, new events, new principles, new passions, a new creation insensibly arisen from the ashes of the old; whichever side I look, the ravage of death has nearly renovated all. Scarcely do we look around us in life, when our children are matured, and remind us of the grave; the great feature of all nature is rapidity of growth and declension. Ages are renewed, but the figure of the world passeth away. God only remains the same. The torrent that sweeps along, runs at the base of his immutability; and he sees, with indignation, wretched mortals, as they pass along, insulting him by the visionary hope of sharing that attribute that belongs to HIM alone.

It is to the incomprehensible oblivion of our mortality, that the world owes all its fascination. Observe for what man toils. Observe what it often costs him to become rich and great. Dismal vicissitudes of hope and disappointment. Often all that can degrade the dignity of his nature, and offend his God! Study the matter of the pedestal, and the instability of the statue. Scarce is it erected, scarce presented to the stare of the multitude, when death, starting like a massy fragment from the summit of a mountain, dashes the proud Colossus into dust. Where then is the promised fruit of all his toil? Where the wretched and deluded being, who fondly promised himself that he had laid up much goods for many years? Gone, my brethren, to his account, a naked victim, trembling in the hands of the living God! Yes, my brethren, the final catastrophe of all human passions, is rapid as it is awful. Fancy yourselves on that bed from which you never shall arise,

arise, and the reflection will exhibit, like a true and faithful mirror, what shadows we are, and what shadows we pursue. Happy they who meet that great inevitable transition, full of days! Unhappy they who meet it but to tremble and despair! Then it is, that man learns wisdom, when too late. Then it is that every thing will forsake him but his virtues or his crimes. To him the world is past; dignities, honours, pleasure, glory; passed like the cloud of the morning!

ZEAL CHARACTERIZED.

Zeal, the source of all elevation in heaven and earth! the crown and consummation of righteousness, the purest emanation of love! Zeal, that raises man above himself; strips him of all fear; endues him with all courage; burns in his expressions, and sparkles in his life; bears him to his end with irresistible impetuosity; the scourge of impiety and disorder, the inflexible pillar of religion and virtue!

PUBLIC WORTH OF RELIGION.

The energies prompted by public spirit and self-preservation may stop the torrent of crimes, and confine treason to its den; but the diffused knowledge and fear of God alone can strike at the source, and give universality to those virtues that ensure felicity to man and to society in this mortal state.

EULOGY ON CHRISTIANITY.

Christianity, the source of every private and public virtue, and, if it be not a fable, so absolutely decisive of our destiny for ever! Surely on a point so important, it is wisdom to use some caution and deliberation, to look before we venture on so dangerous a leap!

My friends, the great source of infidelity is not in the understanding of man, it is in the pride and corruption of his heart: well has the prophet compared the impious man to a tempestuous sea, which, tormented by the winds, vomits upon its shore a tide of slime and impurity. Be not surprized at the boldness of the metaphor. It is exactly applicable to those geniuses who make the sacred objects of our belief the butt of their ridicule and scorn.

This is not an occasion on which I can collect and display the proofs that support revelation; but show me a man, whose moral character evinces that he has no interest in desecrating

them; who, perfectly divested of pride, prejudice, and passion, will carefully examine them; will trace, and, when he has traced them, will candidly acknowledge the exact and most literal accomplishment of the scripture prophecies, that invincible stumbling block in the way of all objectors to Christianity; will admit that its original establishment in the face of all human opposition is any evidence of divine original; that certitude, moral and historical, and facts the most palpable, are a test of truth in any cause whatsoever; that the assent of the most virtuous and enlightened men in every age of the Christian world, down to the present hour, carries any weight with it: that our religion, if false, could have still kept its ground in so many nations of the earth, amidst the increase of human knowledge, and unceasing variation of all human things; and after such an inquiry, and such acknowledgments, will still persist in unbelieving; I will then confess that real and deliberate incredulity is not a chimera.

But I am bold to say, that such an example will never be found; or if ever it should, it will be a singularity not to be accounted for on any known principle of the human mind, and, therefore, would make nothing against the natural strength of the argument.

No, it is invariably the passions of men that impel them to throw aside the yoke of religion; of men whose open and declared profligacy of manners, haunted by the spectre of future retribution, is not the spring of their revolt; no, it is pride, it is the vanity of rising superior to received opinions, of being thought wiser and more intelligent than the multitude, whom they would represent as dragging their steps amidst a night of prejudices; following their teachers with an abashed head, and equally born to creep under the tyrants of their reason, as under those of their liberty.

Consequently we see religion attacked, not by argument, but by sophistry, misrepresentations, wit, irony, ridicule, apocryphal anecdotes, vain and puerile declamations, and all such arts as impose on the understanding, and carry away the suffrage of superficial hearers, who never fail to think themselves convinced, when they are delighted and amused.

Oh, divine religion! let thy ministers be silent; thou standest not in need of their assistance, thy cause is at last become the cause of all society, the delusion is dissipated, every eye is opened, impiety is at length wounded with its own sting, it is betrayed by its own excesses, it is even terrified at the horrors it has occasioned! May we profit, my friends, by the awful lesson! May religion resume a glorious empire among us! the protection of heaven be assured, and this island be happy!

* Every sermon contains two or three impassioned, and perhaps unequalled, episodes like the two last; but we are forbidden to multiply our extracts, not only from the want of space but in justice to those for whose benefit the volume is published.

WESTMINSTER ABBEY;

WITH

OTHER OCCASIONAL POEMS,

AND A

FREE TRANSLATION OF

THE OEDIPUS TYRANNUS
OF SOPHOCLES.

ILLUSTRATED WITH ENGRAVINGS.

By the Author of *Indian Antiquities*.

[The genius of Mr. Maurice scarcely required such a subject to inspire it; but, thus animated, he has produced one of the most beautiful poems in the language. Let him speak for himself in the following passage from the first Canto of his Westminster Abbey.]

FROM WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

EXPAND thy gates of brass, thou glorious Fane,*

Of matchless structure, beauteous to behold,
Rear'd by that prince, o'er Bosworth's crimson'd plain

Whose victor arm the storm of battle roll'd.
While, raptur'd, on thy roof, thy walls, I gaze,

That with such pomp of Gothic splendour tower;

And while, aloft, the banner'd trophies blaze,
Let musing Sadness rule the solemn hour.

Ye monarchs of the earth! attend your doom,
And throw awhile the rich tiara by;

Come, mourn with me at mighty Henry's tomb,

And heed a monitor that cannot lie!

* Henry the Seventh's Chapel.

The far-famed conquerors of their transient day
The lion-ree, of dauntless Edward born,
Divested of their purple pomp survey,
And from their grasp the rubied sceptre torn.

Approach, nor tremble while your steps descend

To charnell'd caverns—Grandeur's last abode!

From mouldering majesty its trappings rend,
And view the worm its regal spoil corrode.

Shades of the mighty! rise—confirm my strains,—

Rise thou, whom Agincourt triumphant view'd,

What now of all your boundless spoil remains,
Of plunder'd nations, and a world subdued?

Sovereigns of Britain! when in gorgeous state
You bend the knee, at yon high altar crown'd,

Let stern Reflection paint your destin'd fate,
When a few suns have roll'd their radiant round.

With thundering shouts when Heaven's high arch resounds,

And long and loud the pealing organs blow,
When the rich diadem your brow surrounds,

Think on th' insatiate grave that yawns below!

Here York and Lancaster are foes no more,
In the same dark sepulchral vault inurn'd;

Their eager contest for dominion's o'er,
Extinct the rage that in their bosoms burn'd.

Senseless to glory as their marble shrines,
The jasper columns that their ashes shade,

Low in the dust each mighty chief reclines,
In mail no more, but mantling shrouds array'd.

Blasted the LILLIES on the blazon'd shield,
Wither'd the rival ROSES' fatal bloom?

All vanquish'd on this vast but bloodless field,
Where Fate's dark banner sheds its baleful gloom.

Here—scarcely less renown'd in Glory's page,—

Sublime in genius, rich in classic lore!
The rival statesmen of our wondering age

Slumber, unconscious, on the marble floor,
Since Tully pour'd in Rome his fervid strain,

Than PITT's, what loftier accents charm'd the soul?

With nobler rage through yon resounding fane,

Than Fox, who bade the manly periods roll?

Oft through incumbent night's protracted gloom,

Of eloquence rush'd on th' impetuous stream,

Till, through the casements of th' illumin'd dome,

Astonish'd Phœbus pour'd his orient beam.

Close

Close by great CHATHAM's shrine their dust
is laid,

Alike their genius tower'd, alike their fame—
When marble crumble to the dust they shade,
Immortal blooms the Patriot's sacred name!

Here too—as Time rolls on his vast career—
GRENVILLE, whose breast with fires congenial glows,

Shall weeping nations place thy honour'd bier,
And near thy PITT thy laurell'd head repose.

Thus Genius, Science—all that's great or
brave,

A mighty heap of ruins! round me lies,
Absorb'd, ingulph'd by the devouring grave;
All, all is vain beneath yon bounding skies.

Here quench'd for ever is the Muse's fire,
For ever ceas'd is Music's rapturous swell!
Near DRYDEN hangs untun'd his lofty lyre,
And HANDEL smiles no more the deep-ton'd shell.

In these dark chambers of the grave reclines
Full many a letter'd, many an ermin'd sage;
In Learning's list how bright CASAUBON
shines,

And MEAD, the boast of an enlighten'd age.

Who shall great MURRAY's wondrous powers
pourtray?

What music charm'd us like that silver
tongue?

On which—mellifluous as the Mantuan's lay—
The crowded Bar, and raptur'd Senate hung.

As o'er these dreary catacombs I tread,
What mingled passions in my bosom rise,
Here Wisdom sojourns with the slumbering
dead,

And Fraud detected drops the vain disguise.

WEALTH, POWER, AMBITION, where are
fled those charms

That tyrannize o'er man's deluded race?

Ye that arouse the maddening world to arms
And shake contending kingdoms to their
base,

Where is the breathing glow of BEAUTY fled,
That once the soul of rival warriors fir'd,
The sparkling eye, the cheek with crimson
spread,

The air—the shape—by crowded courts ad-
mir'd!

Peace, beauteous Exile! to thy injur'd shade,
In life defam'd, in death with glory
crown'd,

Securely slumber, near thy rival laid,
Beyond the grave her vengeance cannot
wound.

Too stern ELIZA! why that barbarous deed,
Which a deep shade o'er all thy laurels
throws;

And could thy soften'd heart for ESSSEX bleed,
Nor melt at suffer'd MARY's deeper woes?

Nor less, on adamantin'd tablets grav'd,
The triumphs, ANNE! of thy victorious
reign,

When Glosy all her glittering ensigns wav'd,
To crush the Gaul on Blenheim's blood-
stain'd plain!

Beneath yon tomb that towers in pillar'd pride,
With bright imperial trophies rich embellish'd,
Illustrious SEYMOUR sleeps, to thrones allied,
Above the pomp of thrones by virtue rais'd!

Here, PERCY, as I cast my eyes around,
Lost in the blaze of titles and of birth;
Who more than Thee for high descent re-
nown'd,

Who more ennobled by intrinsic worth?

FROM THE POEM OF GENIUS.

WHEN Man's majestic form, at Nature's
birth,
Rose, newly fashion'd, from the teeming
earth,

Pleased with his noblest work, th' Eternal
Sire

A portion of his own ethereal fire
Breath'd on the senseless mass:—the kindling
clay

Felt the pure flame, and bounded at the ray.
But Life with myriad humbler forms he
shared,

For Man a nobler boon his hand prepared;
He gave him Reason's powers, and thro' his
soul

Bade the warm current of the Passions roll:
Almighty Genius, then, that hand bestow'd,
And all his features with the Godhead glow'd.

Uninjur'd, unimpair'd by age or clime,
Bright as the Sun, and as its source sublime,
While Time's uncounted cycles roll away,
Fervid, immortal, flames its hallow'd ray.

Soul of the daring thought, and glowing
lyre,

What shall repress its *rage*, or damp its fire?
Unchanged by climate—at the burning line,
With warmth congenial glows the Spark di-
vine!

Mid Scythia's snows the tropic heat displays,
And pours through Lapland glooms its ardent
blaze.

Now, where parch'd Afric's burning sands
extend,

And raging Cancer's glowing beams descend,
In dauntless Hannibal its fires benold,
Who o'er proud Rome the Panic thunder
roll'd;

'Twas Genius o'er the Alps his standard bore,
And purpled Cannæ with patrician gore!
Now, mid the darkness of the frozen pole,
Behold those fires inflame great Peter's soul.
With daring schemes of high ambition fraught,
What vast conceptions fill his labouring
thought!

Of boundless empire—midst a trackless wild,
The haunt of savages, with blood defil'd!—
The stern Lycurgus forms the mighty base,
And glows to civilize a barbarous race;
In barren swamps bids tow'ring cities rise,
And Science bloom beneath Siberian skies;
With verdure clothes the rock's incumbent
brow,

While at his feet th' eternal forests bow;
O'er half the Arctic circle spreads his reign,
And with new navies crowds th' astonish'd
main.

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